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Aspects of Indian Psychiatry

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PECIALIZATION, highly developed in modern Western medicine, is Onot a new phenomenon. Ancient medical systems already show varying degrees of division of labour among physicians. The Greeks, for example, regarded Machaon and Podaleirios, the two sons of the god of healing, Asklepios, as the fathers of surgery and internal medicine. The ancient Iranians distinguished between three main types of healers: those who cured with the knife, those who cured with herbs, and those who cured with holy words. Similar divisions of medicine are also known from India. Basava's Śivatattvaratnākara11 and an anonymous treatise of undetermined age, the Cikitsāsārasamgraha, mention four basic types of medical treatment: (1) treatment by means of iatrochemical compounds, (2) treatment by means of medicinal plants, (3) treatment by means of surgery, and (4) treatment by means of mantras. The arrangement of these four types of medical treatment is more or less hierarchical, as appears from their being called (1) daiva- (divine),

List of abbreviations

A.h. - Aştāngahrdayasamhitā

A.s. - Astāngsamgraha Ca. - Carakasamhitā

Ci. - Cikitsāsthāna

Ni. - Nidānasthāna

Śā - Śārīrasthāna

Si. - Siddhisthāna

Su. - Suśrutasamhitā

Sū. - Sūtrasthāna

U.- Uttaratantra

Vi. - Vimānasthāna

(2) *mānuṣa*- (human), (3) *āsura*- (demonic), and (4) *siddhavaidyaka* (*siddha* medicine).

The established tradition, however, recognizes eight branches $(a \ ga)$ of Indian medicine: (1) internal medicine $(k\bar{a}yacikits\bar{a})$, (2) surgery (salya), (3) the treatment of diseases of the ears, eyes, nose, mouth and throat $(s\bar{a}l\bar{a}kya)$, (4) the management of pregnancy, obstetrics, gynaecology, and paediatrics $(kaum\bar{a}rabhrtya)$, (5) the treatment of epilepsy and insanity $(bh\bar{u}tavidy\bar{a})$, (6) toxicology (agadatantra), (7) the science of longevity $(ras\bar{a}yana)$, and (8) the science of aphrodisiacs $(v\bar{a}j\bar{i}karana)$.²⁾

In ancient times each of these branches had its own specialists. The names of authorities who composed specialized treatises have been handed down, but almost all their writings are lost; fragments only are known, preserved in later works, particularly in commentaries. The reason for the neglect of these specialized texts may have been the composition of comprehensive medical textbooks which made the earlier texts superfluous. These larger handbooks began to appear around the beginning of our common era. Two of these, the Carakasamhitā and Suśrutasamhitā, achieved fame and became authoritative. Each concentrates on one of the eight divisions of āyurveda, the Carakasamhitā on internal medicine and the Suśrutasamhitā on surgery, but all the same, the remaining branches of medicine are also represented in these works. In this respect the last section of the Suśrutasamhitā, the "Uttaratantra," is particularly interesting. This appendix to the surgical textbook is based on earlier specialized treatises that were concerned with those branches of medicine not covered in its main part.3) The Carakasamhitā does not possess such an appendix and neglects to a certain extent the subjects not belonging to kāyacikitsā (internal medicine). The type of textbook of which the Caraka- and Suśrutasamhitā are the finest examples is rare in later Sanskrit medical literature, which mainly consists of works covering the whole of the medical art. The first examples of works that no longer focus on a particular branch of medicine are those of Vāgbhaṭa. This evolution goes hand in hand with the tendency to harmonize conflicting elements present in the earlier texts.

What is the place assigned to psychiatry within the framework of the eight branches of āyurveda? A characteristic of Indian medicine that it has in common with other traditional and ancient systems of medicine is the absence of a discipline that is comparable with psychiatry as it has developed in Western medicine. As a matter of fact, psychiatry is still a young branch on the tree of Western medicine.

However, one of the divisions of ayurveda covers important aspects of psychiatry, namely the branch called bhūtavidyā. 4) The diseases dealt with under this head are epilepsy (apasmāra) and insanity (unmāda). The term bhūtavidyā indicates that, originally, this branch was concerned with disorders thought to be caused by possession by nonhuman spiritual beings. This is still the definition assigned to the term in the Suśrutasamhitā.51 Very similar definitions occur in the Hārītasamhitā61 and other works.71 With the passage of time, however. the meaning of the term changed. It came to cover more than states of possession, or, more probably, these disorders were, at least partly, reinterpreted as having a natural cause. Nevertheless it remains remarkable that the Suśrutasamhitā maintains an old definition that disagrees with its own theories about epilepsy and insanity as expounded in the chapters devoted to these subjects.81 In this connection it should be taken into consideration that the preserved text of the Suśrutasamhitā is a version redacted by an unknown author who is sometimes identified as Nāgārjuna. The "Uttaratantra," which contains the chapters on insanity and epilepsy, has been added to the main body of the text by this redactor. The three chapters on insanity and epilepsy (U. 60-62) are traditionally regarded as forming the section on bhūtavidyā of the Suśrutasamhitā, as appears from the colophons of these chapters and Dalhana's commentary. However, the earlier meaning of the term bhūtavidyā is still visible in the arrangement of the three chapters; the first one is about possession and is called "Amanusopasarga," the second has epilepsy as its subject, and the third is concerned with insanity due to natural causes (unmāda). A more logical order is found in Vāgbhata's works (A.h.U. 4-7; A.s.U. 7-10) and in the treatises inspired by them; the order in these works is: bhūtonmāda, unmāda, and apasmāra.

The term bhūtavidyā remained in use for the branch of āyurveda concerned with epilepsy and insanity, but, as mentioned already, possession by supernatural beings formed only a part of the disorders covered by it. Much can be said in favour of the thesis that the domain of possession had already been reduced in the early stages of ayurveda. The process of demystification resembling that found in the history of Greek medicine also occurred in India, in the sense that diseases, regarded in ancient times as of supernatural origin, were declared to have natural causes. A famous treatise of the Hippocratic Collection entitled "On the Sacred Disease," and some ancient Indian works defend the view that epilepsy is caused by the humours and therefore has a natural origin. In both Greek and Indian medicine, this rational medical theory is applied to epilepsy in particular. Opponents, holding that epilepsy is caused by demons, are vehemently attacked in the Suśrutasamhitā and other works, as we will see. The situation with regard to insanity was more complicated, due to the distinction of types of insanity caused by the humours and types resulting from possession. The second group remained a recognized category during the development of ayurveda up to relatively recent times.

In my opinion, the states of possession as a subgroup of the group of disorders called *unmāda* may have been borrowed from a popular form of medicine, or the medical tradition of the Atharvaveda. The differences in the number and the names of the supernatural beings taking possession of human beings and making them mad corroborate this hypothesis. In this regard the states of possession in adults resemble similar disorders in children caused by *grahas*.

The incorporation of the states of possession in the āyurvedic textbooks may be seen as due to the wish of the ancient Indian physicians not to exclude patients suffering from these disorders from their practice. It may well be that they did not like the idea of leaving these patients to the care of exorcists. One of the possible interpretations is that the physicians wanted to have a say in this matter. The same interpretation may be valid for the inclusion of the childhood disorders attributed to demons (bālagrahas).¹⁰⁾

The way in which the classical samhitās describe insanity and its

treatment is extremely interesting with regard to the questions to what extent the theory and practice of ayurveda were rational and which part remained influenced by an earlier type of bhūtavidvā. As already mentioned, the Suśrutasamhitā (U. 60-62) describes possession first, followed by epilepsy and insanity caused by natural factors. It is remarkable that the chapters on possession and other forms of insanity are separated from each other by the chapter on epilepsy. The Carakasamhitā, on the other hand, deals with the same group of disorders in a different way (Ci. 9-10). All forms of insanity and their treatment are described in one chapter, followed by one on epilepsy. Moreover, the forms of insanity caused by the humours are handled first, followed by bhūtonmāda. It is even more remarkable that the Carakasamhitā discusses the aetiology of insanity and epilepsy twice, in the Nidānasthāna (Ni. 7-8) and the Cikitsāsthāna. The chapter on insanity of the Nidānasthāna only pays little attention to possession, being primarily concerned with insanity arising from the humours. These features seem to suggest that Caraka's attitude is more rational than that of Suśruta. 11) Vāgbhata has adopted the same attitude as that expressed in the Suśrutasamhitā.

A treatise holding a special position with regard to the same subject is the $H\bar{a}r\bar{t}tasamhit\bar{a}$. This work discusses epilepsy and the natural varieties of insanity in two short chapters belonging to the section on $k\bar{a}yacikits\bar{a}$ (III. 18–19), while a much longer chapter, separated by a wide gap, is concerned with possession and forms in itself the section on $bh\bar{u}tavidy\bar{a}$ (III. 55).

The *Bhelasaṃhitā* does mention $bh\bar{u}tonm\bar{a}da$, but does not give much attention to it, at least not in the extant parts of this work. It seems to accept a division of labour between physicians and exorcists, which gives it a special position. The chapter on the therapy of insanity explicitly states that it is the task of physicians to prescribe drugs to patients with mental disorders, whereas the $bh\bar{u}tacikitsaka$, or the exorcist, should occupy himself with religious treatment ($daivavyap\bar{a}siraya$). Bhela regards the treatment of the humoral varieties of insanity as belonging to the domain of the $k\bar{a}yacikitsaka$.

An important text which exerted much influence on later authors is

Mādhava's *Rugviniścaya*, usually called the *Mādhavanidāna*. In its chapter on *unmāda*, this treatise describes the humoral varieties first, based on Caraka, followed by the types of *bhūtonmāda*, based on Suśruta.¹⁴⁾ This model became the most current.

The humoral types of unmāda and those caused by possession do not exhaust the varieties distinguished in āyurvedic literature. 15) Suśruta mentions two additional types, caused by intense emotions and by poison. 161 Vāgbhaṭa¹⁷⁾ and Mādhava¹⁸⁾ accepted these types in their classifications. The place of unmāda, due to its intense affects, is less clear in the Carakasamhitā, while the type caused by poison is absent there. Neither is insanity caused by poison mentioned in, for example, Ravigupta's Siddhasāra. It is present again in the Hārītasamhitā, which also acknowledges strong emotions as causes of insanity, without, however, recognizing a separate type caused by these emotions. The Bhelasamhitā (Ci. 8) describes mental disorders due to strong affects but does not classify them under the head of unmada; they form a distinct category, called mada in this treatise. Unmāda brought about by poison is absent from the Bhelasamhitā, as it is from the Carakasamhitā, which need not surprise us since both samhitās adhere to the teachings of the school of Atreya.19)

The manner in which the subject of bhūtonmāda is treated in the various texts points to its ambiguous position within the framework of āyurveda. Some medical authors even went so far as to object to the incorporation of the treatment of mental disorders in works chiefly devoted to kāyacikitsā. Examples of this attitude are found in Cakrapāṇidatta's Āyurvedadīpikā²⁰ The contents of the Carakasaṇhitā do not justify this, as this treatise shows a high degree of concern for the mental well-being of patients. With regard to bhūtonmāda, it seems plausible that the Carakasaṇhitā was intent on restricting its domain by not considering it as a distinct category of disorders. Nevertheless, states of possession could not be entirely ignored. Some passages of the Carakasaṇhitā may show a slight reluctance towards mental patients, apparently advising them to turn to experts in this matter.²¹ The Suśrutasaṇhitā, although mainly empiricist in its outlook, yields more to the pressure of popular beliefs than the Carakasaṇhitā.²² This

trend, the incorporation of material from popular medical lore, is still more pronounced in the works of Vagbhata, which, for example, recognize a larger number of *bhūtas* or *grahas* than the *Caraka*- and *Suśrutasamhitā*. The medical literature written after Vāgbhaṭa's time shows two different approaches to the subject of bhūtonmāda. The Mādhavanidāna and the large number of works inspired by it return to an attitude closely resembling that of the Carakasamhitā. The followers of Vāgbhaṭa adopted his more indulgent attitude towards popular beliefs. Some late treatises give evidence of an increasing impact of popular beliefs on medicine, especially with regard to demonology and allied subjects. Examples are the Hārītasamhitā and Śārngadharasamhitā, which accept a growing number of types of possession. The same trend is a marked feature of medical treatises influenced by Tantrism. An example is the chapter on unmāda (12) of Nārāyaṇa's Tantrasārasamgraha. Late works enumerate additional types of bhūtonmāda not found in earlier medical literature and probably borrowed from popular beliefs. An example is the eighteenth-century Amrtasāgara, ascribed to Prātapasimha.²³⁾

After this survey of the position of *bhūtavidyā* within the framework of *āyurveda* and the categories of *unmāda* recognized in medical treatises, it may be useful to add some remarks on the pathogenesis of insanity, as described in Indian medicine. I will refrain from elaborating on concepts of mental functioning, which would require a separate study. It is, however, important to realize that in Indian medical theory, as in Indian thought in general, mental processes are usually not regarded as connected with the brain, but, instead, with the heart (*hṛdaya*). The āyurvedic texts emphasize the role of the heart as the seat of emotions and, accordingly, as the organ where disturbances of mental functioning have their origin. The most consistent treatise in this respect is the *Carakasamhitā*, which never mentions the brain within the context of insanity.²⁵⁾

Opinions that more or less differ from those expressed in the *Carakasamhitā* are recorded in some other treatises. The *Suśrutasamhitā* does not mention the heart in its description of the pathogenesis of insanity, but refers to the *manas*.²⁶⁾ However, the *manas*, a psychic

organ that integrates sense perceptions, is thought to be located in the heart. Suśruta's approach can therefore not be interpreted as essentially different from that found in the *Carakasamhitā*. Yet, the *Suśrutasamhitā* also contains a statement connecting insanity and other disorders of mental functioning with injuries to the head. Later authors follow either Caraka or Suśruta. Vāgbhaṭa's discussion of the pathogenesis of *unmāda* is close to Caraka's, while Mādhava adheres to Suśruta's views. The only treatise clearly expressing a dissenting opinion on the subject is the *Bhelasamhitā*. This work states that insanity ensues when the excited humours reach the *manas*, an organ, according to Bhela, not located in the heart, but in the head, between the cranium and the palate (i.e., probably in the brain). This corruption of the *manas* is followed by disorders of the *citta* and the *buddhi*, two psychic organs located in the heart.

Insanity develops, according to the generally accepted classical theory, when corrupted humours reach the heart and obstruct the channels transporting the manas.³⁰⁾ It is not easy to interpret this theory, but these channels are repeatedly referred to.³¹⁾

Which are the humours (doṣa) involved in the aetiology of insanity? Ayurvedic theory recognizes three bodily humours — wind, bile and phlegm — and two similar entities, also called doṣa, which affect the mind, namely rajas and tamas. The latter two entities form part of the well-known Sāṃkhya triad of constituents (guṇa) of the universe: sattva, rajas and tamas. Sattva, being essentially pure, is not a cause of mental affliction;³²⁾ only rajas and tamas, which are the two māna-sadoṣas,³³⁾ are acknowledged as bringing about disorders of the mind.³⁴⁾

The status of the two mental *doṣas* in Indian medicine is ambiguous, since they are not regarded as having the same importance as wind, bile and phlegm.³⁵⁾ Cakrapāṇidatta, the famous commentator on the *Carakasaṃhitā*, maintained that the *mānasadoṣas* and their pathogenic actions are hardly suitable subject for a work like the *Carakasaṃhitā*, which is concerned with somatic diseases.³⁶⁾ A similar attitude is found in the *Kāśyapasaṃhitā*, which contains a verse declaring that mental disorders should be treated in the same way as somatic diseases.³⁷⁾

One of the ways to deal with the problematic position of the māna-

sadoṣas consisted in linking them with the three humours. Efforts in this direction can be seen in Dalhaṇa's commentary on the Suśruta-saṃhitā. Dalhaṇa says that rajas is predominant in wind, tamas in phlegm; opinions differed with respect to bile, said to be chiefly connected with either sattva or rajas.³⁸⁾ These links are rather unsatisfactory, since, as already mentioned, sattva is usually thought of as never involved in pathology. These connections between the three humours and the three guṇas of Sāmkhya philosophy may be related to a set of similar correspondences between the five mahābhūtas and the three guṇas: ākāśa (space) consists chiefly of sattva, vāyu (wind) of rajas, agni (fire) of sattva and rajas, āpaḥ (water) of sattva and tamas, prthivī (earth) of tamas.³⁹⁾

It remains completely obscure how these correspondences may be applied to medicine. In general, I have the impression that the three *guṇas* of Sāṃkhya philosophy, although frequently referred to in medical literature, were never integrated satisfactorily in medical thought.⁴⁰⁾

Also to be noticed in this context is the interrelatedness of body and mind. This mutual influence is especially emphasized in the *Caraka-saṃhitā*, which states that bodily diseases may bring about mental disorders, and mental diseases bodily ones. A widely accepted ayurvedic principle is moreover that exogenous (agantuka) disorders, in which category the mental disorders are placed, are always followed by secondary disturbances of the three humours. Remarkable too is the overlap of the symptoms produced by the bodily doṣas and the mānasadoṣas. Both groups of pathogenic agents bring about disorders with somatic and mental signs.

I will now discuss the types of *unmāda* described in the āyurvedic texts. The types of insanity caused by wind, bile, phlegm, and all three humours together are characterized in closely related ways in the works of Caraka, Suśruta and Vāgbhaṭa.⁴²⁾

An important question is whether or not these syndromes may be interpreted in the light of Western psychiatric concepts. Mitchell Weiss, an American scholar who is both an Indologist and a psychiatrist, has given much thought to this subject in his thesis "Critical study of *unmāda* in the early Sanskrit medical literature: An analysis of

Ayurvedic psychiatry with reference to present-day diagnostic concepts." Relying on Caraka's descriptions of insanity caused by imbalance of the humours, Weiss inferred that organic psychoses arising from malnutritional and systemic infectious aetiology are the most likely of the potential Western diagnostic correlates. This led him to discuss insanity caused by wind in relation to mental disorders in pellagra, bilious insanity in relation to systemic infections accompanied by liver involvement, and phlegmatic insanity in relation to pernicious anaemia. At the contraction of the property of the prop

Weiss's interpretations, however, do not convince me. I regard the humoral types of *unmāda* as exaggerations of the humoral constitutional types, well known from the classical āyurvedic sources and frequently referenced. M. Weiss may have been aware of this connection but did not develop the idea. Instead he notices the relationships between the Galenic temperaments and the humoral types of insanity in Indian medicine.

The characteristics of these humoral types of insanity refer, like those of the constitutions, to both body and mind, and they can be understood only in the light of the theory of the three humours. The symptoms of insanity by wind, for example, are derived from the properties and actions of wind. Identifying this syndrome as a psychosis accompanying pellagra⁴⁵⁾ is a rather dangerous step that does not do justice to the peculiarities of āyurvedic thought. I would misrepresent the basic assumptions and views of M. Weiss if I were to attribute to him a simple scheme of one-to-one equivalents of Indian and Western diagnostic entities. He explicitly rejects this in theory,⁴⁶⁾ but, nevertheless, he often suggests it. To be fair to him, I should mention that he remarks that Hartnup's disease, besides pellagra, may also have been diagnosed as insanity brought about by wind.⁴⁷⁾

The very close linkage of the humoral types of insanity to the humour thought to be predominantly involved is due, for example, to a shared characteristic which distinguishes them from the exogenous types of insanity: the time of their acme. Insanity caused by wind manifests itself especially after digestion of the ingested food, i.e., at the time when activation of wind is thought to be normally present.

Similarly, bilious insanity increases during digestion, and phlegmatic insanity just after the intake of food. This manner of describing symptomatology is characteristic of Indian medicine and cannot be made to agree with Western medical notions. The same applies to other signs, such as the colour of the skin, etc.; the skin is ruddy, yellow or pale in insanity caused by wind, bile and phlegm, respectively.

For these reasons I cannot see convincing resemblances between the humoral types of insanity and diagnostic entities of Western psychiatry.⁴⁸⁾

Mental disorders brought about by intense affects belong, together with those caused by possession, to the category of exogenous diseases. The group arising from intense emotions is of particular interest in many respects. The type of disorder described under this head cannot be classified as 'psychotic' in any sense attached to this term in Western psychiatry, in contrast with the humoral types of insanity, characterized by grave disturbances of mental functioning.

The affects enumerated in the texts vary.⁴⁹⁾ Anxiety, grief and frustrated love⁵⁰⁾ are the predominant causes of this type of *unmāda*. Anger, greed, envy and excitement are sometimes added. Differentiations among the resulting disorders are usually absent. They are mostly collectively called *unmāda* originating in mental suffering.⁵¹⁾ Detailed descriptions are not given, except to some extent in the *Bhelasaṃhitā*,⁵²⁾ the only treatise distinguishing mental disorders due to emotions from *unmāda*, placing them in a distinct group called *mada*. This *mada*, if increasing in severity, evolves into *unmāda* and acquires the signs characteristic of the humours. The *Suśrutasaṃhitā* employs the term *mada* once⁵³⁾ in order to designate, like the *Bhelasaṃhitā*, less serious conditions which may develop into *unmāda*.⁵⁴⁾ The *Carakasaṃhitā* uses the term *mada* for a disease that differs from *unmāda*.⁵⁵⁾

Cakrapāṇidatta, generally averse to psychiatry, makes an attempt to reinterpret mental disorders caused by emotions as varieties of humoral *unmāda*,⁵⁶⁾ probably basing his classifications on a passage from the *Carakasaṃhitā*⁵⁷⁾ where a series of emotions are enumerated that may lead to insanity through excitement of the humours. Cakrapāṇidatta claims that *unmāda* arising from intense affects consti-

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tutes a variety caused by wind, because these affects give rise to excitement of wind. Cakrapāṇidatta may be accused of arbitrariness in making this claim, as there is no generally accepted theory concerning the relationships between particular emotions and particular humours. 581 Moreover, emotions may be connected with the two mental doṣas, rajas and tamas, instead of associated with the three humours. 591

In general, āyurvedic treatises do not pay much attention to mental problems caused by anxiety, grief, etc. Nevertheless, treatment of these states is discussed. The *Carakasaṃhitā* recommends soothing patients who grieve due to loss of someone or some object they deeply loved by giving them a substitute and treating intense affects with antagonistic measures. ⁶⁰⁾ Similar statements are found in Vāgbhaṭa's works. ⁶¹⁾ The antagonistic measures referred to remind one of the *pratipaksabhāvana* of the *Yogasūtra*. ⁶²⁾

In my opinion, the types of insanity collectively called *bhūton-māda*⁶³⁾ constitute a category of disorders deriving from non-medical circles, ⁶⁴⁾ incorporated with some reluctance in the āyurvedic *saṃhitās*, and reinterpreted by the ancient Indian physicians in order to make them agree as much as possible with medical theories. Unfortunately, as far as I know, there are not many non-medical sources mentioning related classifications. ⁶⁵⁾

Evidence supporting my thesis, that the types of *bhūtonmāda* derive from popular beliefs concerning possession, is, as I already mentioned, the relatively restricted number of these types in the *Caraka*- and *Suśrutasaṃhitā*, and their increase in later treatises, ⁶⁶¹ in which respect they resemble the disorders brought about by the *grahas* that attack children. These *bālagrahas* derive undoubtedly from popular lore and are known, under widely diverging names, from a large number of Sanskrit works.

The relative lack of interest in the various beings involved in *bhūtonmāda* appears from the paucity of specific countermeasures. The larger part of the therapeutic prescriptions against humoral *unmāda* are said to be effective against the whole group of *bhūtonmādas* as well.

The attitude of the ancient Indian physicians towards *bhūtonmāda* is in general characterized by ambivalence. Suśruta⁶⁷ asserts that the

beings mentioned do not actually take possession of human beings; the syndromes described are rather patterns of behaviour adopted by humans who imitate particular supernatural beings, because they are like mirrors that reflect the image of these beings. 681 The Suśrutasamhitā assures its readers that the beings causing bhūtonmāda never actually enter a human being, and that those who are convinced of such a possession are fools who do not have a proper understanding of bhūtavidyā. 699 Vāgbhata says 709 that a person who imitates the behaviour of a particular supernatural being is described as being possessed by (āvista) that being. We find, on the other hand, in the Carakasamhitā a passage stating that divine beings make a person mad by glancing at him, that sages, siddhas, etc., do so by cursing, pitarah by showing themselves, gandharvas by touching, vaksas by entering, rākṣasas by making their smell perceptible, and piśācas by riding their victims.711 In spite of the employment of the same imagery found in the Suśrutasamhitā, the Carakasamhitā declares that the supernatural beings enter the human body invisibly, thanks to their special powers (gunaprabhāva).721

Caraka,⁷³ Suśruta⁷⁴ and Vāgbhaṭa⁷⁵ mention a pathognomonic sign of *bhūtonmāda* which differentiates it from the other types of insanity, namely its time of onset. *Bhūtonmāda* is entirely different from the humoral varieties in this respect, since its time of onset or recrudescence is independent of the stages of digestion. This characteristic seems to imply a close link with the agents involved and not merely imitative behaviour on the part of the patient, the more so since each class of supernatural beings prefers a particular day of the lunar cycle for its attack.⁷⁶

Many more inconsistencies can be detected when the texts are carefully studied, for example with regard to aetiology. An apparently psychological attitude is found in the *Carakasaṃhitā*, at least in part of the passages concerned. Punarvasu Ātreya, the teacher whose views are expounded in this treatise, declares that *bhūtonmāda* should not be regarded as originating in one's *karman*, but in *prajñāparādha*, a key eoncept in the *Carakasaṃhitā*.⁷⁷⁾ This means that moral transgressions based on defective insight are the root causes of *bhūtonmāda*. This

opinion is not to the liking of Cakrapāṇidatta, who explains that this not only refers to improper behaviour in one's actual life, but also to that in former existences. (Conversely, the *Carakasaṃhitā* itself claims more than once that the coming to fruition of bad acts committed in former lives is to be considered the principal cause of *bhūtonmāda*. (This varying attitude is undoubtedly connected with the well-known fact that the ancient Indian physicians were averse to a rigid interpretation of the doctrine of *karman*, since this doctrine did not agree with their efforts to alleviate human suffering. (80)

In general, the medical treatises do not consider *bhūtonmāda* as apportioned by destiny and ineluctable. Particular types of behaviour may provoke an attack by a particular supernatural being. This subject is elaborated in the *Carakasaṃhitā*⁸¹⁾ and the *Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgrahā*.⁸²⁾ The descriptions show that persons with character traits related to the nature of a specific class of supernatural beings make them liable to the type of *bhūtonmāda* caused by that same class of beings. A relationship between character type and type of *bhūtonmāda* is thus established, a subject to which I will return.

The efforts of the āyurvedic physicians to reduce the domain of possession, and, consequently, their ambivalent attitude towards $bh\bar{u}tonm\bar{a}da$, also emerge from their tendency to integrate the $bh\bar{u}tas$ or grahas in the humoral theory. We do not only find statements that humoral imbalance develops in each case of $bh\bar{u}tonm\bar{u}da$ after an interval of time, $^{83)}$ as in all $\bar{a}gantuka$ diseases, but also claims that the symptoms of possession are similar to those of excitement of the humours, that is to say that definite relationships exist between the $bh\bar{u}tas$ and the humours. $^{84)}$ This explains that the treatment of $bh\bar{u}tonm\bar{u}da$ is largely identical with that of humoral $unm\bar{u}da$.

The *Carakasaṃhitā* deals with the therapy of *bhūtonmāda*⁸⁶⁰ in a characteristically ambiguous way. As already mentioned, many formulas may be used in the treatment of all kinds of insanity. The specific treatment of *bhūtonmāda* shows a double approach: mild drugs in combination with religious measures;⁸⁷⁰ the verses on the subject end by calling to mind that any treatment against epilepsy is also suitable, which implies rational treatment with appropriate drugs. Specific

measures against particular types of *bhūtonmāda* are absent from the *Carakasaṃhitā*. The *Suśrutasaṃhitā* records specific treatments of *bhūtonmāda* caused by various kinds of *graha*.⁸⁸⁾ These mostly consist of presenting them with suitable gifts (*bali*) at the proper time and place. Medicinal treatment is presented as well. Vāgbhaṭa's works contain specific treatments of two types; gifts⁸⁹⁾ and medicinal treatment.⁹⁰⁾ Drug treatment is characterized by the frequent use of particular plant substances,⁹¹⁾ and particular substances of animal origin.⁹²⁾

Which mental disorders are covered by the varieties of *bhūtonmāda*? Mitchell Weiss tried to correlate them with syndromes of Western psychiatry. ⁹³⁾ In my opinion, the results of his efforts are not convincing.

Patients who consider themselves possessed usually present a great variety of disorders, in India and in other countries.⁹⁴⁾ It also happens that an exorcist finds out which malevolent being is at the origin of the abnormal behaviour. Appropriate gifts to the being inhabiting the patient, such as those described in the āyurvedic treatises, still form part of the treatment in contemporary practice.⁹⁵⁾

The varieties of *bhūtonmāda* may also be interpreted as exaggerations of the character types, called *sattva* or *kāya*, which are described in the *Caraka-*, *Suśruta-*, *Bhela-* and *Kāśyapasaṃhitā*. The relationships between the *sattva* and the *bhūtonmāda* types are striking and, in my view, cannot be denied, ⁹⁶⁾ although not all the *sattva* types are represented among the *bhūtonmāda* types. ⁹⁷⁾ They differ in degree, comparable to the differences between schizothymia and schizophrenia, cyclothymia and manic-depressive psychosis. The *saṃhitās* themselves suggest these gradations and describe transitions between slight and severe disturbances of mental functioning. ⁹⁸⁾

Sattva is often synonymous with manas in the Carakasaṃhitā. 99) Accordingly, the sattva types are called manobhedāḥ by Cakrapāṇidatta. 100) The characteristics of these types are not only of a mental, but also of a physical nature. 101) The medical treatises referred to describe a rather large number of types, but they add that the types of sattva are actually innumerable, due to the occurrence of all sorts of mixtures.

The sattva types are classified according to the three Sāṃkhya

constituents of the universe. Three groups are distinguished: $s\bar{a}ttvika$, $r\bar{a}jasa$ and $t\bar{a}masa$. Each group is subdivided into a number of types named after gods and various other classes of living beings. The types described in the texts mentioned largely agree, although not in all details.

It has hitherto been overlooked that the three groups of sattva types are not restricted to the four treatises on human āyurveda already mentioned, but that they also occur in works on veterinary medicine, as well as in some encyclopaedias that contain sections on the sciences of horses and elephants. The classification of living beings, especially humans, horses and elephants into sāttvika, rājasa and tāmasa types appears to be generally acknowledged in human and veterinary medicine. The subdivisions of these groups, as found in texts on human āyurveda, are also known to the authors of treatises on horses. The classification of horses in Nakula's Aśvaśāstra, and to a large extent their classification in Basava's Śivatattvaratnākara, are remarkably close to the character types of human beings. [103] The classification of the types of elephants differs considerably. 1041 These data indicate that the description of human character types forms part of a tradition that was widely known and that may also be found in non-medical literature. 1051 The impression that the elaborate typology of human beings does not belong to the central parts of ayurveda is attested by the fact that human character types are of no importance to the practice of medicine. In this respect the sattva types resemble the types of bhūtonmāda to which they are related. Many types of bhūtonmāda are also found among the sattva types. 106) This suggests that several bhūtonmāda types may indeed be interpreted as exaggerations of clusters of character traits belonging to the sattva types that correspond to them.

These relationships give rise to a theoretical problem that is never broached by the commentators on the āyurvedic samhitās. These treatises and their commentaries assert that sattva never gives rise to disorders; 1071 sattva is not a mānasadoṣa, only rajas and tamas are. It is, however, stated nowhere that humans whose characters belong to one of the sāttvika sattva types are not subject to disease. The solution is probably, in agreement with Cakrapāṇidatta, 1081 that pure sāttvika types

do not occur; *rajas* and *tamas* are always present too, to a varying degree. 109)

As already mentioned, the elaborate classification of *sattva* types is not employed in medical practice. Within the context of practice, the *saṃhitās* refer to the broader classification into *sāttvika*, *rājasa* and *tāmasa* types,¹¹⁰⁾ or to a scheme comprising superior (*pravara*), intermediate (*madhya*) and inferior (*avara*) minds (*sattva*).¹¹¹⁾

Although the *sattva* typology aims in principle at a classification of clusters of personality traits, the body is involved too, as explicitly stated by Cakrapāṇidatta,¹¹²⁾ in whose view a *sattva* type is composed of fixed characteristics. The author of the *Rasavaiśeṣikasūtra* agrees that the *sattva* type is present at birth and remains unchanged during life;¹¹³⁾ a change of *sattva* is regarded as a sign foreboding death.¹¹⁴⁾

The *sattva* typology requires discussion in a wider context, namely human typology as seen in *āyurveda*. Several typologies are known in the *saṃhitās*, based on a predominance of (1) humour (*doṣa*), (2) element of the body (*dhātu*), (3) *mahābhūta*, or (4) *guṇa*. All these classifications present mixtures of physical and mental characteristics.

- (1) The humoral typology (*doṣaja prakṛti*) is the most widely accepted typology. This type of constitution, ¹¹⁵⁾ the *prakṛti* par excellence, is described in many texts. ¹¹⁶⁾ Seven types are distinguished: three dominated by one humour, three by two humours, and one type by all three. Both somatic and mental characteristics contribute to the make-up of these constitutions, which are of considerable importance in medical practice. I refrain from elaborating on this subject, which has been dealt with extensively in the secondary literature. ¹¹⁷⁾ Less well known is a subdivision of the three main types referred to by Þalhaṇa. ¹¹⁸⁾ This scheme, accepted by some authorities only, divides the three main types into a large number of subtypes, called after animals and supernatural beings, which makes it resemble the *sattva* typology. ¹¹⁹⁾
- (2) Typologies based on the elements of the body are found in a number of texts. The *Carakasaṃhitā* describes eight types, called *sāra*, in the following order: *tvak*-, *rakta*-, *māṃsa*-, *medaḥ*-, *asthi*-, *majja*-, *śukra*-, and *sattvasāra*. ¹²⁰⁾ Noteworthy features of

this classification, when compared with the list of elements of the body, are the presence of tvaksāra instead of rasasāra and the addition of sattvasāra as the eighth type. All eight types show both physical and mental characteristics. Persons may be endowed with more than one of these sāras according to Caraka. He claims that that someone possessing all the eight sāras simultaneously is provided with the most excellent qualities. Susruta describes the same series in the reverse order, 121) thus indicating that the sattvasāra is superior to the śukrasāra, the śukrasāra to the majjasāra, etc. Suśruta mentions that the span of life $(\bar{a}yus)$ and the degree of happiness and welfare (saubhāgya) depend on the sāra. 122) He enumerates mostly bodily characteristics and no mixed types. The sāra types are only referred to, not described, in Vāgbhata's works. 123) The Kāśyapasamhitā even distinguishes nine sāra types by adding, between the śukra- and sattvasāra of Caraka, an ojahsāra. 124) Seven sāra types, namely the first seven of Caraka's series, are known to Basava, the author of the Śivatattvaratnākara. 125)

- (3) A typology based on the preponderance of one of the five *mahābhūtas* is referred to in the *Suśrutasaṃhitā*¹²⁶⁾ as a classification of *prakṛtis* adhered to by some authorities. These *prakṛtis* show a mixture of physical and mental characteristics. The ether (*nābhasa*) and earth (*pārthiva*) type are described, but not the other ones, since the wind, fire and water types are regarded as identical with the windy, bilious and phlegmatic constitutions. In his commentary Dalhaṇa mentions that some accept a total of thirty-one varieties of this type of constitution by distinguishing mixtures of two, three, four and all five *mahābhūtas*. This typology is hardly ever applied in medical practice. Caraka and Vāgbhaṭa do not mention it, but Ṭoḍara's *Āyurvedasaukhya* quotes Suśruta's description. Five human types, called *prakṛti* or *svabhāva* named after the five *mahābhūtas* and independent of Suśruta's descriptions, are found in Basava's *Śivatattvaratnākara*. 128)
- (4) The *guṇaja* constitutions, connected with the three *guṇas* of Sāṃ-khya philosophy and usually called *sattva*, have already been discussed.

OTHER MENTAL DISORDERS

The Carakasaṃhitā is the only treatise describing a mental disorder called either atattvābhiniveśa or mahāgada. It occurs in a list of diseases, together with the number of their varieties, 129) where it is said to be of one type only. Cakrapāṇidatta comments that it is a mental disorder (mānasa vikāra) caused by sarvasamsāṇiduhkha. Opinions differ as to the question whether mahāgada or atattvābhiniveśa is the name of the disease. It is indeed somewhat difficult to reach a decision on this issue.

The term mahāgada and its synonyms, such as mahāroga, mahāvyādhi and mahāmaya, are applied to groups of diseases, in particular to a group of grave disorders. ¹³³⁾ Caraka, however, points to a specific nosological entity, described, together with its treatment, in the chapter on the therapy of epilepsy, ¹³⁴⁾ which is remarkable in itself, since it is not related to that disease.

Caraka lists the name of a disease first, followed by some characteristics. If this is a fixed rule, the name is *mahāgada* and its specification *atattvābhiniveśa*. However, Cakrapāṇidatta and Śivadāsasena call it *atattvābhiniveśa*. The verses on its treatment justify this, although the last verse of the chapter on epilepsy again refers to it as *mahāgada*. The evidence taken together suggests that *atattvābhiniveśa* is the name of the illness.

Regardless of the name of the disease, its position in the chapter on the treatment of epilepsy is odd. Equally peculiar is its absence in the chapter on the aetiology of epilepsy.

Mahāgada, or atattvābhiniveśa, is such a peculiar entity that it passed into oblivion. The Kāśyapasamhitā is the only other treatise in which it is mentioned. Although it is hard to clarify this situation, a clue to a possible explanation, so far overlooked, is found in Cakrapāṇidatta's commentary. This author remarks that the verses on the aetiology, symptomatology and treatment are regarded as unauthoritative by the ancient physicians (vrddhāḥ), and are read as belonging to Caraka's text by those adhering to the Saindhava and Kāśmīra recensions of the Carakasamhitā. Cakrapāṇidatta therefore abstained from

commenting on these verses. We may conclude that the verses on *mahāgada/atattvābhiniveśa* of Caraka's chapter on epilepsy are interpolated, do not belong to the original text, and were inserted by the *saindhavāḥ* and *kāśmīrāḥ*.

What is the nature of this strange disorder? It is described as follows:

When, made corrupted by various corrupting factors, the humours reach the heart, corrupt the vessels transporting *manas* and *buddhi*, and stay there in someone whose mind is covered by *rajas* and *moha* [tamas], this person, whose *buddhi* and *manas* are covered by the increased *rajas* and *tamas* and whose heart is bewildered by the humours, becomes confused and his *cetanā* (consciousness) diminishes; his judgment is impaired with regard to things eternal and transient, wholesome and unwholesome; the authorities call this major illness *atattvābhiniveśa*.

Surprisingly, the treatment recommended is twofold: drugs on the one hand, and on the other the company of trustworthy friends inspiring the patient with their knowledge, steadfastness, etc. The disease, of a moral nature in my view, is treated as a disorder affecting both mind and body.

A mental disorder with accompanying physical symptoms and an unsettled nosological position is mada. The *Carakasaṃhitā* describes it in one of the chapters of its *Sūtrasthāna*¹³⁵⁾ as belonging to a cluster of three illnesses — *mada*, *mūrchā* and *saṃṇyāsa* — which have a common aetiology in being caused by the humours and occurring in persons whose minds are affected by *rajas* and *tamas*. The leading symptom of all three is mental confusion (*moha*), The leading from damage to the channels transporting consciousness (*saṃjñā*). The order in which they are mentioned indicates an increasing severity of this confusion. Vāgbhaṭa follows Caraka in describing *mada*, *mūrchā* and *saṃṇṇāsa* as a group of related disorders, the joins them to the illnesses resulting from alcoholism. The *Suśrutasaṃhitā* does not regard *mada* as a separate nosological entity. The *Mādhavanidāna* follows the *Suśrutasaṃhitā* in not giving *mada* the status of a distinct disease. Later treatises are usually in agreement with either Vāgbhata or Mādhava.

The *Carakasaṃhitā* distinguishes four humoral varieties of *mada*, caused respectively by wind, bile, phlegm or all three humours. Three other varieties, brought about by blood, distinguish and poisonous substances, are described as not occurring without involvement of the humours. Accordingly, they are not ackowledged as separate types. Vāgbhaṭa and Śārṅgadhara, however, distinguish these seven types as distinct varieties.

The symptoms of the three additional types, absent from the *Carakasaṃhitā*, are recorded by Vāgbhaṭa. [45]

Both somatic and mental signs occur in *mada*, but the three humours are the chief agents bringing them about, according to Caraka and Vāgbhaṭa. The *Carakasaṃhitā*, however, is inconsistent, since *mada* is also referred to as a disorder arising from the *mānasadoṣas*. ¹⁴⁶⁾

The disease called *mada* by Caraka and Vāgbhaṭa may be interpreted as intoxication, ¹⁴⁷⁾ since alcoholic drinks and toxic substances are referred to among its causes. Which type of disorders was diagnosed as humoral *mada* and *mada* arising from blood is less clear.

The *Carakasaṃhitā* employs the term *mada* in a wider sense as an equivalent of arrogance. More specifically, it denotes *mada* as alcohol intoxication. $^{148)}$ *Mada* is, apart from being a disease in itself, a symptom of other diseases, for example of bilious fever $^{149)}$ and fever arising from all three humours. $^{150)}$ Toxic substances of vegetable origin which may cause *mada* are $p\bar{u}ga$, $^{151)}$ *kodrava* $^{152)}$ and *dhattūra*. $^{153)}$ The symptoms and treatment of intoxications brought about by poisonous plants belong to the division of $\bar{a}yurveda$ called *agadatantra* and are not dealt with in connection with *mada*. $^{154)}$

Later āyurvedic literature is also acquainted with hemp¹⁵⁵⁾ and opium¹⁵⁶⁾ as intoxicating substances.

Finally, it should be remembered that the *Bhelasaṃhitā* applies the term *mada* to mental disorders caused by intense emotions, ¹⁵⁷⁾ and that the *Suśrutasaṃhitā* regards it as a minor degree of insanity. ¹⁵⁸⁾

Disorders related to *mada* are *mūrchā* and *saṃnyāsa*. As already mentioned, Caraka regards *mada*, *mūrchā* and *saṃnyāsa* as disturbances of increasing gravity.

 $M\bar{u}rch\bar{a}^{159}$ is described as loss of consciousness, preceded by visual

disturbances which lead to seeing the sky coloured in a particular manner. Caraka, 160) Vāgbhata 161) and Śārngadhara 162) distinguish four varieties, brought about by wind, bile, phlegm and all three humours. Suśruta does not accept a variety arising from the three humours and adds varieties caused by the smell of blood, alcoholic drinks and poisons. 163) Mādhava recognizes the same six kinds as Suśruta, which does not prevent him from enumerating the symptoms of the variety arising from all three humours. 164) The classification of the *Hārītasaṃhitā* is inconsistent in stating that there are six varieties and enumerating seven of them, by wind, bile, phlegm, blood, trauma, alcohol and poison; it even adds an eighth type in its descriptions, namely the variety arising from all three humours. 165) Bhela's description of $m\bar{u}rch\bar{a}^{166)}$ has only partly been preserved; he seems to consider it to be caused by a samnipāta of blood and the three humours. 167) Ugrāditya's Kalvānakāraka¹⁶⁸⁾ has six types, arising respectively from wind, bile, phlegm, trauma, poison and alcohol.

The variety of $m\bar{u}rch\bar{a}$ arising from the three humours resembles epilepsy, according to Caraka and Vāgbhaṭa, and differs from it by not presenting frightening movements. Epileptic symptoms occur in it according to Hārīta. Suśruta remarks that the symptoms of $m\bar{u}rch\bar{a}$ in general are like those of epilepsy.

 $M\bar{u}rch\bar{a}$ may be interpreted as a fainting spell.¹⁷⁰⁾ As it is preceded by auralike premonitory signs, part of the syndromes ancient doctors diagnosed as $m\bar{u}rch\bar{a}$ may have been cases of temporal epilepsy. $M\bar{u}rch\bar{a}$ is, apart from a nosological entity, also a symptom occurring in various diseases.¹⁷¹⁾

Caraka¹⁷²⁾ and Vāgbhaṭa¹⁷³⁾ claim that patients suffering from the humoral types of *mada* or *mūrchā* recover without treatment. This characteristic differentiates them from *saṃnyāsa*, a disease caused by extremely disturbed humours which make the patient lose consciousness.¹⁷⁴⁾ *Saṃnyāsa*, a disorder which is not divided into a number of varieties, is described¹⁷⁵⁾ as a disorder with loss of consciousness of sudden onset and long duration, which makes the patient appear as a log of wood, or dead.

Syncope is therefore not a suitable equivalent, nor catalepsy, which

differs from samnyāsa in not being characterized by loss of consciousness. Cerebral haemorrhage may have been one of the causes of syndromes diagnosed as samnyāsa.

Samnyāsa is also the name of a particular kind of fever caused by the three humours. 1761

Some Indian authors (77) regard durmanas as a mental disorder, equivalent to neurasthenia, described only in the Carakasamhitā. Actually, the term is used to designate one of the symptoms of ojahksaya. [78]

Two closely related neuropsychiatric disorders are apatantraka and apatānaka, described in the Carakasamhitā as caused by wind. This humour, after oppressing the heart, moves upwards and affects the head and temples, thereby leading to loss of consciousness and convulsions which make the body tighten like a how. This condition is called apatantraka. If the patient first recovers and afterwards becomes confused again, it is called by some apatānaka. [79] Cakrapānidatta comments that some consider apatantraka as arising from phlegm and apatānaka from wind. The involvement of phlegm can be deduced from the verses on treatment. [80] Susruta regards apatānaka or dandāpatānaka as caused by wind, accompanied by phlegm; it is a variety of aksepaka and described as a disorder that makes one fall down repeatedly, stretching the body like a bow1811 According to Suśruta, apatantraka is another disease; his description of it is close to that of Caraka. (82) The commentators Gayadasa and Dalhana remark that some do not acknowledge apatantraka as a disease distinct from apatānaka. Vāgbhata uses the same terms as Caraka, adopting the latter's characterization. 1831 The Mādhavanidāna follows a strange course, trying to run with the hare and to hunt with the hounds; it describes apatantraka and apatānaka, in accordance with Caraka, and adds dandāpatānaka, with Suśruta. 1841 The Hārītasamhitā mentions apatantraka as a kind of āksepaka which makes the body stretch like a bow again and again; 185) it adds that some distinguish a disease called apatānaka that seizes half of the body. 1861 The Hārītasamhitā proceeds with the description of dandāpatānaka and a number of varieties of a disorder called pratānaka. [87] The disorder called pratānaka is also found in the Bower Manuscript. 1881 Ugrāditya's Kalyānakāraka 1891 is acquainted with *apatānaka* as a disorder caused by excessive loss of blood, abortion and trauma. The same three causes are known to Vāgbhaṭa.¹⁹⁰⁰ All the works referred to, with the exception of the *Carakasaṃhitā*, deal with *apatantraka/apatānaka* in their chapters devoted to wind diseases. The *Bhelasaṃhitā* is the only text that has a separate chapter, on *apatantraka*, which chiefly discusses this disease and its treatment.¹⁹¹⁰ The pathogenesis and symptomatology as recorded by Bhela are remarkably close to those of Caraka. Bhela, however, uses *apatānaka* as a synonym for *apatantraka*.

Although apatantraka/apatānaka does not belong to the domain of psychiatry, ¹⁹²⁾ I discussed the data regarding this disease because of the connection with the head as the seat of consciousness and the place of origin of convulsions. Another reason for its inclusion is that in some respects it resembles epilepsy. Vāgbhaṭa mentions apatānaka as a member of a cluster of disorders, collectively characterized by disturbances of memory (smṛṭivibhraṃśa) and brought about by the abuse of alcohol. ¹⁹³⁾ Apatantraka is sometimes interpreted as hysteria. ¹⁹⁴⁾ which is called yoṣāpasmāra in later treatises. ¹⁹⁵⁾ J. Jolly suggests that apatānaka may designate hysteric convulsive states, and apatantraka apoplectic convulsions. ¹⁹⁶⁾

Stuttering (*gadgadatva*) is described in the *Suśrutasaṃliitā* as one of the wind diseases.¹⁹⁷⁾

Delirious states (*pralāpa*) are often mentioned in passing as occurring in various diseases, especially in fevers. [198]

MENTAL DISORDERS DESCRIBED IN LATE ĀYURVEDIC LITERATURE

(1) *Smaronmāda* is described in the *Āyurvedavijñāna*¹⁰⁰⁰ as a disease affecting both men and women, caused principally by frustrated love and disorders of the sexual organs. Its treatment is discussed in Govindadāsa's *Bhaiṣajyaratnāvalī*²⁰⁰⁰ and the *Āyurvedavijñāna*. Fulfilment of the patient's longings constitutes the best remedy, but drug treatment is recommended as well. The disorder is also mentioned in Dattātreya's *Rasacaṇḍāmśu*.²⁰¹⁰

- (2) The characteristics of *apadārthagada*, or *gadodvega* as described in the *Āyurvedavijñāna*, ²⁰²⁾ establish that it is equivalent to hypochondria. Its treatment, discussed in the *Bhaiṣajyaratnāvalī*²⁰³⁾ and the *Āyurvedavijñāna*, consists chiefly of soothing (*sāntvana*) and consolation (*āśvāsana*), with some drugs as adjuvants.
- (3) *Tattvonmāda*, or *brahmamoha*, is the same as materialism, considered as a disease. It is described in the *Āyurvedavijñāna*, ²⁰⁴⁾ and its treatment is discussed in the *Bhaiṣajyaratnāvalī*²⁰⁵⁾ and the *Āyurvedavijñāna*. It is odd to see that drugs are recommended. Chastisement by means of blows is also thought to be helpful.
- (4) Acalavāta, also known as tādavasthyagada and aparivartaka, is a mental disorder that makes the patient stand immobile in a frozen attitude, according to the Āyurvedavijñāna. 2061 Its treatment, mostly consisting of drugs, is described in the Bhaiṣajyaratnāvalī²⁰⁷¹ and the Āyurvedavijñāna. The latter treatise distinguishes a hereditary variety.
- (5) An interesting disorder of uncertain nature is *tāṇḍavaroga*, the dancing disease, characterized by involuntary movements of the whole body. The *Āyurvedavijñāna*²⁰⁸⁾ describes its aetiology and symptoms. The *Bhaiṣajyaratnāvalī*²⁰⁹⁾ and *Āyurvedavijñāna* discuss its treatment. The *Bhaiṣajyaratnāvalī* distinguishes varieties brought about by amenorrhoea, menorrhagia and parasites.
- (6) Yoṣāpasmāra, or yoṣāpatantraka, is a disease occurring only in women of fertile age. It is described, together with its treatment, in the Bhaiṣajyaratnāvalī²¹¹0 and Āyurvedavijñāna.²¹¹1 Various causes, both physical and mental, are enumerated; noteworthy among these are widowhood in young women, lack of affection on the part of the husband, harsh treatment by the relatives (of the husband), and amenorrhoea. The signs listed make this disorder resemble hysteria. Yoṣāpasmāra is also known to Gulrāj Śarmā Miśra, who mentions it in his Siddhaprayogalatikā.²¹²)
- (7) *Mastiṣkavepana*, or śīrṣavepana, a disorder caused by injuries to the head. Prominent symptoms are mental instability (*calacittatā*; *cittacāñcalya*) and trembling.²¹³⁾ It is described, together with its treatment, in the *Bhaiṣajyaratnāvalī*²¹⁴⁾ and *Āyurvedavijñāna*.²¹⁵⁾

- (8) Two diseases of the cerebrum, called *mastiṣkacaya* or *-vṛddhi* and *mastiṣkāpacaya* or *-hrāsa*, are, together with their treatment, described in the *Bhaiṣajyaratnāvalī*²¹⁶⁾ and *Āyurvedavijñāna*.²¹⁷⁾ *Mastiṣkacaya* is obviously hydrocephalus, and *mastiṣkāpacaya* cerebral atrophy. Diseases of the brain are also known to Gulrāj Śarmā Miśra²¹⁸⁾ and Jayadevaśāstrin.²¹⁹⁾ Decrease of the cerebral tissue is already described in the *Suśrutasamhitā*.²²⁰⁾
- (9) A disease in which fluid accumulates within the brain is known as śīrṣāmburoga is or mastiṣkodaka, and is described, along with its treatment, in the Bhaisajyaratnāvalī²²¹⁾ and Āyurvedavijñāna.²²²⁾
- (10) Suicide attempts²²³⁾ and treatment by means of resuscitation are discussed in the *Bhaiṣajyaratnāvalī*²²⁴⁾ and *Āyurvedavijñāna*,²²⁵⁾

EMOTIONS AND DISEASE

As referred to earlier, āyurvedic theory assumes particular relationships hetween emotions and the humours. Study of the *saṃhitās* of Caraka, Suśruta and Vāgbhaṭa makes clear that these connections vary considerably, as is shown by the following examples:

bhaya (fear) leads to excitement of wind (Ca.Ci.3.115; 19.12; 20.7; 28.15–18; A.h.Ni.2.43; Aruna ad A.h.Ni.5.29).

bhaya leads to excitement of bile (Ca.Ci.16.9; Su.Sū.21.21).

bhava leads to excitement of the three humours (Ca.Ci.16.8).

cintā (apprehension) leads to excitement of bile (Ca.Ci.16.9).

cintà leads to excitement of the three humours (Ca.Ci.19.8).

harşa (pleasure) leads to excitement of phlegm (Ca.Ni.1.25).

īrṣyā (envy) leads to excitement of wind (Aruṇa ad A.h.Ni.5.29).

īrsyā leads to excitement of bile (Ca.Ci.19.6).

kāma (sexual excitement) leads to excitement of wind (Ca.Ci.3.115; A.h.Ni.2.43; Aruņa ad A.h.Ni.5.29).

kāma leads to excitement of bile (Ca.Ci.16.9).

krodha (anger) leads to excitement of wind (Ca.Ci.22.4-5; 26.104-105 and 124; 28.15-18).

krodha leads to excitement of bile (Ca.Ni.1.22; 4.24; Ci.3.115; 16.9; 19.6; Su.Sū.21.21; A.h.Ni.2.43; Aruṇa ad A.h.Ni.5.29).

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lobha (greed) leads to excitement of wind (Ca.Ci.26.124; Aruṇa ad A.h.Ni.5.29).
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śoka (grief) leads to excitement of wind (Ca.Ni.1.19; 3.6; 4.36; Ci.3.115; 19.12; 20.7; 22.4–5; 26.124; A.h.Ni.2.43; Aruṇa ad A.h.Ni.5.29).

śoka leads to excitement of bile (Ca.Ci.16.9; 22.4–5; Su.Sū.21.21). śoka leads to excitement of the three humours (Ca.Ci.19.8).

Somatic disorders which may be caused by emotions are:

(1) anorexia (arocaka), which may be caused by bhaya (Ca.Ci.26.124;Su.U.57.6); cintā (Su U.57.6); krodha (Ca.Ci.26.124; A.h.Ni.5.29; A.s.Ni.5.31); lobha (Ca.Ci.26.124); samrāga (or kāma) (Su.U.57.6);

śoka (Ca.Ci.26.124; Su.U.57.6; A.h.Ni.5.29; A.s.Ni.5.31).

- (2) diarrhoea (*atisāra*), which may be caused by *bhaya* (Ca.Ci.19.11; A.h.Ni.8.12–13ab; A.s.Ni.8.13–14ab) or *śoka* (Ca.Ci.19.11;Su.U.40.13cd–15ab; A.h.Ni.8.12–13ab; A.s.Ni. 8.13–14ab); and
- (3) fever (*jvara*), which may be caused by *bhaya* (Ca.Ci.3.114–128; Su.U.39.79; A.h.Ni.2.40–43; A.s.Ni. 2.40–43);

kāma (Ca.Ci.3.114–128; Su.U.39.78; A.h.Ni.2.40–43; A.s.Ni. 2.40–43);

krodha/kopa/roṣa (Ca.Ci.3.114–128; Su.U.39.79; A.h.Ni.2.40–43; A.s.Ni.2.40–43); or

śoka (Ca.Ci.3.114–128; Su.U.39.79; A.h.Ni.2.40–43; A.s.Ni.2.40–43).

Bhaya is involved in chardi (vomiting) (Ca.Ci.8.62) and hṛdroga (diseases of the heart) (Ca.Ci.26.77). Cintā is involved in hṛdroga (Ca.Ci.26.77). Krodha is involved in delayed healing of ulcers (Ca.Ci.25.34). Śoka is involved in delayed healing of ulcers (Ca.Ci.25.34) and decrease of rasa (Ca.Ni.6.8).

SLEEP AND ITS DISORDERS

Sleep is thought to occur when the heart is covered by *tamas*.²²⁶⁾ The heart, visualized as an inverted lotus flower, closes its petals during sleep and opens them, under the influence of *sattva*, on awakening.²²⁷⁾

Numerous rules pertaining to the regulation of sleep are set down in the medical classics. Sleep during the day is to be avoided, except during summer and when suffering from particular diseases.²²⁸¹ Waking at night is prescribed in a few disorders.²²⁹³

Insomnia (nidrānāśa) is discussed in the Caraka- and Suśrutasaṃhitā. The factors involved in its aetiology are, according to
Caraka: 2300 purgation, evacuation of the head (śirovireka), vomiting,
fear, apprehension (cintā), anger, (excess of) smoking (for therapeutic
purposes), (excessive) physical exercise, blood-letting, fasting, an uncomfortable couch, an excess of sattva, restraint of tamas, an excess of
work, old age, wind disorders, a constitution dominated by wind, and
the humour wind itself. Suśruta²³¹⁰ enumerates as causative factors;
wind, bile, mental affliction (manastāpa), wasting (kṣaya), and physical
injury (abhighāta).

DISORDERS CAUSED BY ALCOHOLISM

The chapter of the *Carakasaṃhitā* that deals with the disorders due to the excessive consumption of alcoholic drinks shows that in ancient times the Indian physicians did not object at all to a moderate use of these drinks. This chapter even contains a eulogy, describing the beneficial effects of alcohol. ²³²⁾ Suśruta is remarkably sober and devotes just two verses to this subject. ²³³⁾ Vāgbhaṭa is in general disapproving: In the chapter on the aetiology of alcoholic disorders, ²³⁴⁾ nevertheless, he included an elaborate praise of wine at the end of the chapter on the treatment of the bad effects of abuse. ²³⁵⁾ Verses of similar import occur in the *Bhelasaṃhitā*. ²³⁶⁾ The *Hārītasaṃhitā*. ²³⁷⁾ is even more subdued than the *Suśrutasaṃhitā* and the *Kāśyapasaṃhitā*. only mentions beneficial results of alcohol in some diseases. The *Kalyāṇakāraka* neglects disorders brought about by alcohol almost completely. The

Bower Manuscript expresses a liberal attitude towards the consumption of alcohol.239)

Caraka gives the most elaborate exposition on the properties of alcohol. It is said to possess ten properties which are also present in poisons, but to a higher degree. The vital substance, called ojas, is endowed with the ten contrary properties, which means that alcohol and poisons are injurious to *ojas*. ²⁴⁰ Vāgbhaṭa repeats this more concisely. ²⁴¹ The *Suśrutasaṃhitā* discusses the qualities of alcohol without referring to poisons and ojas.

Three stages of alcoholic intoxication (mada) are described²⁴³⁾ by Caraka,²⁴⁴⁾ Suśruta²⁴⁵⁾ and Vāgbhaṭa.²⁴⁶⁾ The descriptions given by Caraka and Suśruta do not completely agree.²⁴⁷⁾ The *Mādhavanidāna* has its own characterizations of four stages of intoxication. 248) The Bhela-, Hārīta- and Kāśyapasamhitā do not mention these stages.

The symptoms of abuse of alcohol are divided into four types, not only in the works of Caraka, Suśruta and Vāgbhaṭa, but also in the *Bhela-*, ²⁴⁹, *Hārīta-*²⁵⁰ and *Kāśyapasaṃhitā.* ²⁵¹ These types are those with a preponderance of wind, bile, phlegm, or all three humours. 252) Actually, alcohol is regarded as corrupting all three humours, in the same manner as poisons do, which means that the three first types are characterized by a high degree of excitement of one of the three humours.

Caraka²⁵³⁾ and, following in his wake, Vāgbhaṭa²⁵⁴⁾ discuss two complications of drinking, called *dhvaṃsaka* and *vikṣaya*.²⁵⁵⁾ Caraka describes them as occurring in persons who, after a period of abstinence, suddenly resume drinking. Vāgbhaṭa shares this view, adding that persons who take recourse to another kind of alcoholic beverage than they formerly preferred are especially prone to these affections.

The Suśrutasamhitā is not acquainted with these two complications²⁵⁶⁾ and instead describes three other ones, called paramada, pānājīrņa and pānavibhrama.²⁵⁷⁾ In this respect the Mādhavanidāna follows the Suśrutasaṃhitā.²⁵⁸⁾ The nature of these disorders is not clear.259) Two more complications discussed by Suśruta are excessive thirst $(trsn\bar{a})$ and a burning sensation $(d\bar{a}ha)^{260}$ Excessive thirst as a sequel of alcohol abuse is also described in the Bhelasamhitā, 261) as well as pānājīrņa.²⁶²⁾ The Kāśyapasaṃhitā refers to two complications of abuse, namely chronic alcoholism (pānavibhrama) and the syndrome occurring after sudden abstinence (pānāpakrama),²⁶³⁾ and may be the only treatise referring to the psychotic states (delirium tremens and alcohol hallucinosis) which are caused by sudden abstinence.²⁶⁴⁾

A noteworthy feature of the treatment of disorders caused by excessive drinking is the prescription of alcoholic beverages. The ancient Indian physicians were obviously well aware of the dangers of sudden withdrawal in persons accustomed to the intake of alcohol.

EPILEPSY (APASMARA)265)

Caraka describes epilepsy as caused by the humours and occurring in persons whose minds are affected by rajas and tamas. The excited humours move to the head and, upwards of it, to the seats of the senses. If they, while staying there, are suddenly agitated by violent emotions. the heart and the sense organs are filled up by them and an attack of epilepsy ensues.2661 Suśruta says that epilepsy arises when the channels transporting consciousness are pervaded by the humours and by rajas and tamas. 2671 Vagbhata is of the opinion that epilepsy is brought about by excited humours which pervade the mind, the heart and the channels carrying consciousness. 2681 Bhela relates that an attack of epilepsy comes about when one or more of the increased humours seize the ten vessels located above the heart and obstruct the pathway of the mind.²⁶⁹⁾ The Bhelasamhitā contains a second, altogether different description of the onset of epilepsy: when the mind, due to a variety of causes, is disturbed, the heart becomes desiccated; subsequently, the wind obstructs the bodily heat ($\bar{u}sman$) and reaches the channel ($n\bar{u}d\bar{t}$) which transports water; the person suffering from this disorder is oppressed by thirst, becomes confused, and develops epilepsy.²⁷⁰⁾ The text of the Hārītasamhitā on the onset of epilepsy is not clear; it ascribes the causation of the disorder to a series of excited humours: wind, bile, phlegm, udāna and prāna.271)

The above descriptions indicate that the āyurvedic physicians were aware that epilepsy cannot be explained as having its origin in the heart.

The channels transporting consciousness, repeatedly mentioned, are located upwards of the heart, and the seats of the senses are found in the head. The statements on the pathogenesis of epilepsy are therefore illuminating. It is rare to find passages connecting the head and the sense organs with nervous disorders. Striking is the clarity of Caraka's description in the *Nidānasthāna*. The description in the *Cikitsāsthāna* is different; it omits to mention the seats of the senses and refers to the humours affecting the vessels of the heart.

The majority of the āyurvedic treatises describe four varieties of epilepsy, caused respectively by wind, bile, phlegm, and all three humours.²⁷⁴⁾ The *Hārītasaṃhitā* does not refer to the number of its varieties; Ugrāditya's *Kalyāṇakāraka* regards it as brought about by the three humours, with wind as the predominant one.²⁷⁵⁾

The characterisation of *apasmāra* shows that epilepsy is intended. The convulsive fits are accurately described, together with the prodromes and sequelae. The disease may have gotten its name from the amnesia (*apasmṛti*, *apasmaraṇa*) which follows an epileptic attack.

Particularly interesting is a remark of Caraka, clearly noticed by M. Weiss.²⁷⁷⁾ Caraka says in the chapter on epilepsy of the *Nidānasthāna*²⁷⁸⁾ that an exogenous (āgantuka) types of this disease also occurs, and that he is going to describe it later on, that is, in the section on treatment. This type of epilepsy is, however, not characterized in the Cikitsāsthāna, which refers to it in passing, 279) as the Nidānasthāna does. Suśruta, Vāgbhata and other authors do not accept an exogenous type of epilepsy. Caraka's remark is puzzling and not easily explained. M. Weiss seems to suggest that the exogenous type must have been dealt with in the original chapter on the treatment of epilepsy of the Agniveśatantra, prior to its redaction by Dṛḍhabala, who removed the pertinent passages. 280) M. Weiss tends moreover to assume that, in later times, convulsive epilepsy without signs pointing to involvement of the humours was considered part of the group of bhūtonmādas, not the group of epileptic disorders. He draws attention to the mention of convulsive seizures in some of the bhūtonmāda types of the Suśrutasamhitā, 281) details which are absent from the Carakasamhitā. M. Weiss's statements imply that he is convinced that agantuka

apasmāra was originally dealt with in the chapter on the treatment of epilepsy, and that forms of epilepsy without humoral signs were regarded as such. He may be right as to his first point, but he is certainly on the wrong track with regard to his second point; Caraka's own statements disagree with it. The Carakasamhitā says²⁸²⁾ that signs pointing to an exogenous factor are sometimes seen in epileptic patients as the effects of an anubandha, i.e., a secondary disorder, of a humoral nature, which evidently means that an independent exogenous epilepsy does not exist.²⁸³⁾ This is also Cakrapānidatta's interpretation of the single verse in the chapter on the treatment of epilepsy that refers to exogenous epilepsy.²⁸⁴⁾ This verse, like the statements in prose of the Nidānasthāna, indicates that forms of humoral epilepsy, complicated by an agantuka element, show extra symptoms not connected with the humours. This makes it different from bhūtonmāda, which is, according to Cakrapānidatta, independent of the humours. It is remarkable that Caraka adds²⁸⁵⁾ that apasmāra, tinged with āgantuka signs, should be treated as a case of bhūtonmāda, which makes it resemble that group of disorders. A similar statement is found in the chapter on the aetiology of epilepsy, 2861 where Caraka declares that a mixed kind of treatment (sādhāranakarman, i.e., both drugs and religious therapy) is suitable to mixed types of the disease.

This state of affairs proves that Caraka was not yet convinced that possession by supernatural beings did not contribute to the causes of epilepsy, which makes his attitude less rational that that of Suśruta and others. The Carakasaṃhitā also contains a passage²⁸⁷ about the mythic origin of epilepsy, where this disorder is attributed to contact with defiling bhūtas.

Cakrapāṇidatta even informs us²⁸⁸⁾ that some early authorities, like Bhīmadanta and others, assumed that an independent type of epilepsy, caused by supernatural beings, does exist.

The Suśrutasaṃhitā rejects the involvement of demons (bhūta) in epilepsy and declares emphatically that it is brought about by the humours. This statement is confirmed by Dalhaṇa. Yet Suśruta also adds that medicines employed against grahas (i.e., against bhūtonmāda) should preferably be used in the treatment of epilepsy. The

recommendation that Rudra and his attendants be duly honoured²⁹¹⁾ is referred to as the opinion of others, an opinion to which Suśruta evidently does not subscribe.

In his Astāngahṛdayasaṃhitā²⁹²) Vāgbhaṭa describes epilepsy as a humoral disorder and does not pay any attention at all to other elements in its aetiology. The situation is different in the Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha. The latter mentions a type of epilepsy with an admixture of signs indicating involvement of demons (bhūta). It recommends treatment by religious measures.²⁹³) The chapter on epilepsy even ends with a verse on possession by grahas but this time accompanied by the recommendation to employ medicinal treatment ²⁹⁴)

The *Bhelasaṃhitā* does not accept the involvement of *bhūtas* in the causation of epilepsy, as far as one can judge from the extant parts of the chapters dealing with it.²⁹⁵ Four humoral types are distinguished. The *Kāśyapasaṃhitā*²⁹⁶ also enumerates four humoral varieties. Ugrāditya is convinced of a purely humoral aetiology and denounces as fools those holding that *grahas* cause it.²⁹⁷

This suggests that, in the course of time, epilepsy came more and more to be regarded as a disease caused by natural factors. Exceptions do occur, however, even in rather late texts. The *Rājanighaṇṭu*, for example, still mentions *bhūtavikriyā* as a synonym of *apasmāra*.²⁹⁸⁾

DREAMS

A classification of dreams²⁹⁹ into seven varieties is found in the *Carakasamhitā*.³⁰⁰ The first five types are based on (1) visual perceptions, (2) auditory perceptions, (3) perceptions by other senses, (4) wishes (*prārthita*), and (5) imagination (*kalpita*); the sixth type (*bhāvika*) points to future events, and the seventh is caused by the humours. The first five varieties are regarded as useless to physicians.

The Kāśyapasamhitā³⁰¹⁾ describes the same seven types but differs from the Carakasamhitā in considering all of them as useless from a medical point of view. According to Kāśyapa, useful dreams are those which are not based on anything seen, heard, spoken, or imagined.³⁰²⁾ Vāgbhaṭa accepts Caraka's classification, agrees with him on the use-

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lessness of the first five types, but adds to them dreams caused by the humour or humours that predominate in one's constitution.³⁰³⁾

Particular dreams are characteristic of one's constitution.

The sections or chapters dealing with *aristas* describe many dreams which have a prognostic significance.³⁰⁴⁾

Special treatises on the interpretation of dreams are known in Sanskrit literature.³⁰⁵⁾

SEXUAL DISORDERS

Sexual disorders are described in the *Suśrutasaṃhitā*. 3061 Disorders occurring in males are:

- (1) *āsekya*; this disorder results from scantiness of the *bīja* of the parents; a man is called *āsekya* if he gets an erection only after swallowing the semen of another man; Dalhana mentions *mukhayoni* as a synonym of *āsekya*.³⁰⁷⁾
- (2) saugandhika, or sugandhin; this disorder finds its origin in foulsmelling genitals of the mother; a saugandhika gets an erection only after inhaling the smell of a penis or vulva; Dalhana mentions nāsāyoni as a synonym.
- (3) a kumbhīka is only potent with a woman after submitting to anal intercourse with another male; Dalhana mentions gudayoni as a synonym.
- (4) an *īrṣyaka* is potent only after looking at the intercourse of another couple.³⁰⁸⁾
- (5) a *ṣaṇḍhaka* is a male who does not produce semen; this disorder is the result of parental intercourse in which the man lies on his back; a *ṣaṇḍha* is characterized by passive homosexual behaviour: he wants, when lying on his back, to be masturbated by another man.³⁰⁹⁾

Sexual disorders in women are:

(1) the *nārīṣaṇḍha*, which results from parental intercourse in which the woman behaves like a man; if a daughter is born, she will show a masculine type of behaviour.

(2) female homosexuality; Suśruta is of the opinion that pregnancy may be the result but that the foetus will be devoid of bones.

Types (1) to (3) of sexual disorders in males are, according to Cakrapāṇidatta, included in the type called *saṃskāravāha* of Caraka; Suśruta's *īrṣyaka* and Caraka's *īrṣyārati* are identical, according to Cakrapāṇidatta again.³¹⁰⁾

MENTAL DISORDERS IN ELEPHANTS

Pālakāpya's *Hastyāyurveda* describes a series of interesting mental disorders occurring in elephants:

- (1) *pūrvābaddha*:³¹¹⁾ a mental disorder making elephants unfit for employment; this disease can only be cured by letting the elephant suffering from it return to the forest.
- (2) *hṛdayasphālana*:³¹²⁾ a mental disorder, caused by fear, occurring in elephants newly brought from the forest.
- (3) hastonmathita:313) an incurable mental disorder.
- (4) *vātagati*.³¹⁴⁾
- (5) *bhūtagraha*:³¹⁵⁾ a series of nine *grahas* is described, together with the symptoms they produce and the treatment of these affections.³¹⁶⁾
- (6) *unmāda*:³¹⁷ drug treatment is recommended; a fumigation, said to ward off all *grahas*, is also described, which proves that demons were regarded as the causative agents in at least part of these syndromes.
- (7) *apasmāra*: ³¹⁸⁾ epilepsy in elephants is clearly thought to be caused by demons, because the disorder is also called *apasmāragraha*; offerings to the nine planets (*navagraha*) are thought useful in its treatment, as well as the treatments described in the chapter on *unmāda*.
- (8) $r\bar{a}trik\bar{s}ipta$: a mental disorder occurring during the night only; it is caused by demons (graha).
- (9) *cetobhraṃśa*:³²⁰⁾ a mental disorder characterized by fearfulness of the elephant.
- (10) disorders caused by the Nāga- and Tantukagraha. 321)

MENTAL DISORDERS IN HORSES

Jayadatta's Aśvavaidyaka describes:

- (1) *unmāda*:³²²⁾ said to be caused by the three humours; drug treatment is recommended.
- (2) disorders caused by demons (graha).3231
- (3) apasmāra:324) to be treated in the same manner as unmāda.

Table A The classifications of the types of unmāda (28)

- (1) Carakasamhitā: 5 types by wind, bile, phlegm, sammipata, and exogenous factors (āgantuja); the last type of this series comprises unmāda caused by supernatural beings and by intense emotional states.
- (2) **Bhelasamhitā**: the same types as in the *Carakasamhitā*, but the *agamnja* type does not include *unmāda* causad by intense emotions.
- (3) **Suśrutasaṃhitā**: 6 types by wind, bile, phlegm, *saṇṇṇṇata*, mental affliction, and poison; insanity caused by possession is not included and forms a separate group.
- (4) **Vāgbhaṭa**'s A.h. and A.s.: 6 types by wind, bile, phlegm, sanjaipata, mental suffering, and poison; *bhūtonmāda* is not included and forms a separate group.
- (5) Hārītasamhitā: 8 types by wind, bile, phlegm, wind and bile, wind and phlegm, bile and phlegm, samnipāta, and poison; bhūtonmāda forms a separate group; unmāda caused by intense emotions is not recognized as a separate type.
- (6) Kāśyapasaṃhitā: 5 types (see Sū.27.53).
- (7) **Mādhavanidāna**: 6 types by wind, bile, phlegm, *vaṃnipāta* intense emotions, and poison; *bhūtonmāda* forms a separate group.
- (8) Śār gadharasamhitā: 6 types by wind, bile, phlegm, sannipara, poison, and mental suffering: bhūtonmāda forms a separate group.
- (9) Ugrāditya's Kalyāṇakāraka: 5 types by wind, bile, phlegm, saimipāta, and grief; bhūtonmāda, called grahopasargāmaya, forms a separate group.

Table B Classification of the types of bhūtonmāda

⁽¹⁾ Carakasaṃhitā (Ci.9); 8 types: deva; guru; vṛddha; siddha; ṛṣi; pitaraḥ;

- gandharva; yakṣa; rākṣasa; brahmarāksasa; piśāca.
- (2) **Suśrutasaṃhitā** (U.60); 9 types: deva; deyaśatru; gandharva; yakṣa; pitaraḥ; bhujaṅga; rakṣas; piśāca; vārdhaka.
- (3) **Vāgbhaṭa**'s A.h. (U.4); 18 types: deva; daitya; gandharva; uraga; yakṣa; brahmarākṣasa; rākṣasa; piśāca; preta; kūṣmāṇḍa; niṣāda; aukiraṇa; vetāla; pitaraḥ; guru; vṛddha; ṛṣi; siddha.
- (4) Vāgbhaṭa's A.s. (U.7); 18 types: deva: Īśvara, Indra, Dhanada, Varuna; asura: Rudra, Indra, Upendra, Skanda, Viśākha; gandharva; uraga; yakṣa: Maṇivara, Vikaṭa; brahmarākṣasa: Yajñasena; rākṣasa: Viśākha, Saṅgama, Mālin, Virūpāksa; piśāca; preta; kūṣmāṇḍa; kākhorda; maukiraṇa; vetāla; pitaraḥ; ṛṣi; guru; vṛddha; siddha.
- (5) **Mādhavanidāna** (20); 8 types: deva; devašatru; gandharva; yakṣa; pitaraḥ; bhujaṅga; rākṣasa; pišāca.
- (6) **Śār gadharasaṃhitā** (I.7.38–40ab); 20 types: deva; dānava; gandharva; kinnara; yakṣa; pitṛ: guru; preta; guhyaka; vṛddha; siddha; bhūta; piśāca; jalādhidevatāḥ; nāga; brahmarākṣasa; rākṣasa; kūṣmāṇḍa; kṛtyā; vetāla.
- (7) **Hārītasaṃhitā** (III.55); 10 or 21 grahas; the series of ten consists of: aindra; āgneya; yama; nairṛta; vāruṇa; māruta; kubera; aiśa; grahaka; piśāca.
- (8) **Amṛtasāgara** (p. 152–154); 9 types: the same eight as in the *Mādhavanidāna*, preceded by *bhūta*; 7 additional types: *satīdoṣa; kṣetrapāladoṣa; devī; kāmana; śańkhinī- and ḍākinīdosa; preta; brahmarākṣasa*.
- (9) Ugrāditya's **Kalyāṇakāraka** (18.119–126); 8 types of *graha: deva; asura; gandharva; yakṣa; bhūtapitṛ; rākṣasa; piśāca; uraga.*
- (10) Nārāyaṇa's **Tantrasārasaṃgraha** (ch.12); 18 mahāgrahas: amṛta or sura; asura; nāga; yakṣa; gandharva; rākṣasa; meḍhra; kaśmala; nistejas; bhasmaka; pitṛ; kuśa; vināyaka; pralāpa; piśāca; antyaja; yonija; bhūta; 9 grahas: apasmāra; dvija; brahmarākṣasa; nṛpa; viś; vṛṣala; nīca; caṇḍāla; vyantara.

Grahas mentioned in Viśveśvarabhaṭṭa's Madanamahārṇava (ch.40): prajāgraha; jvaragraha; aikāhikajvaragraha; pratuṇḍa; kāmila; kālanāyaka; pitṛgraha; lokāyata; āpastamba; vṛtra; mahājvaragraha; kumbhaka; kapila; śivapāda; ūrdhvakeśin; viṣṭambha or vivṛtākṣa; mahājihvagraha; navagraha; vāsava; vāyasa; kṣetrapāla; acala; hastipāda; karṇagraha; dhanada; avatola; kṛśa or śaśigraha; skanda; skandāpasmāra; śiśugraha; meṣagraha. Noteworthy is the absence of unmāda as one of the diseases caused by these grahas,

although some symptoms may point to mental disorders. Some of the grahas are known from medical texts as involved in children's diseases and insanity,

Grahas mentioned in the Mahāmāyūrī (Bower Manuscript VI): deva, nāga, asura, maruta, garuḍa, gandharva, kinnara, mahoraga, yakṣa, rākṣasa, preta, piśāca, bhūta, kumbhāṇḍa, pūtana, kaṭapūtana., skanda; among a series of evils enumerated are kankhorda, okiraṇa, and vetāla.

Table C Sattva types

Carakasamhitā (Śā.4.37–39); (a) śuddha: brāhma; ārṣa; aindra; yām-ya; vāruṇa; kaubera; gāndharva; (b) rājasa: āsura; rākṣasa; paiśāca; sārpa; praita; śākuṇa; (c) tāmasa: pāśava; mātsya; vānaspatya.

(2) Suśrutasamhitā (Śā.4.81–98ab); (a) sāttvika: brāhma; māhendra; vāruņa; kaubera; gāndharva; yāmya; ārṣa; (b) rājasa: āsura; sārpa; śākuna; rākṣasa; paiśāca; praita; (c) tāmasa: pāśava; mātsya;

vānaspatya.

(3) Kāśyapasamhitā (Śū.28); (a) śuddha: brāhma; prājāpatya; ārṣa; aindra; yāmya; vāruṇa; kaubera; gāndharva; (b) rājasa: āsura; rākṣasa; paiśāca; sārpa; yākṣa; bhūta; śākuna; (c) tāmasa: pāsava; mātsya; vānaspatya.

(4) Bhelasamhitā (Śā.5.16-22); 7 types of divyakāya: brahma-, deva-,

varuna-, gandharva-, piśāca-, asura- and mahārājakāya.

(5) Śivatattvaratnākara (VII.10.173–176): sura: manuṣya; rakṣaḥ; piśāca; tiryak.

Table D Sativa types in veterinary texts

Sattva types in horses.

(1) Nakula's Aśvaśāstra (p. 52-54); (a) sāttvika: brāhma; ārṣa; māhendra or aindra; yāmya; kaubera; vāruṇa; gāndharva; (b) rājasa: āsura; rākṣasa; paiśāca; sārpa; pautra; śākuna; (c) tāmasa: pāśava; mātsya; vairudha.

(2) Basava's Śivatattvaratnākara (VII.12.106–107); (a) sāttvika: brahma; īśa; vāsava; kubera; paretarāja; gandharva; pāśadhara; (b) rājasa: rākṣasa; asura; piśāca; pitṛ; dvijihva; pakṣin; (c) tāmasa: not enumerated. Sattva types in elephants.

- Basava's Śivatattvaratnākara (VII.11); (a) sāttvika: deva; gandharva; vipra; kṣatra; (b) rājasa: vaiśya; śūdra; sarpa; (c) tāmasa: paiśāca; rakṣah.
- (2) Someśvara's Mānasollāsa; (a) săttvika: deva; gandharva; vipra; kṣātra; (b) rājasa: vaiśya; śūdra; sārpa; (c) tāmasa: paiśāca; rākṣasa.
- (3) Nīlakaṇṭha's Mātaṇgalīlā (ch. 8); (a) sāttvika: deva; gāndharva; brāhmaṇa; kṣatriya; yākṣa; (b) rājasa: vaiśya; śūdra; sārpa; (c) tāmasa: āsura; rākṣasa.

Table E Correspondences between types of sattva and bhūtonmāda

Types of sattva: (1) deva, brāhma, aindra, vāruņa; (2) ārṣa; (3) gāndharva; (4) kaubera; (5) rāksasa; (6) paiśāca.

Types of bhūtonmāda: (1) deva; (2) guru, ṛṣi; (3) gandharva; (4) yakṣa; (5) rākṣasa; (6) piśāca.

NOTES

- 1) Šivatattvaratnākara, V1.21.17cd-18ab.
- 2) The order of these divisions varies from treatise to treatise.
- See Su.U.1.4cd-8ab and Dalhana's comment.
- Diseases belonging to bhūtavidyā are to be treated chiefly by means of daivavvapāśraya measures, i.e., measures derived from religion.
- Su.Sū.1.8; U.60.27cd–28ab. See also Todara's Ayurvedasaukhya, Vol. II: 1.29; the Ayurvedasaukhya regards the treatment of unmāda as belonging to the realm of kāyacikitsā (see Vol. II: 1.27–28).
- Hārītasamhitā 1.2.19.
- See, for example, Candraţa's commentary ad Cikitsākalikā 365, and Basava's Sivatattvaratnākara V1.21.10; the latter treatise employs the term grahatantra

List of abbreviations

A.h. - Astāngahrdayasamhitā

A.s. - Aştāngasamgraha

Ca. - Carakasamhitā

Ci. - Cikitsāsthāna Ni. - Nidānasthāna

Śā. - Śārīrasthāna

Si. - Siddhisthāna

Su. - Suśrutasamhitā

Sū. - Sūtrasthāna

U.- Uttaratantra

Vi. - Vimānasthāna

- instead of *bhūtavidyā*. The old definition was retained for a long time; see, for example, Cakrapāṇidatta's comment ad Ca.Sū.30.28, A.h.Ci.1.168ab and Aruṇadatta's comment ad A.h.Sū.1.5cd-6ab.
- The Suśrutasamhitā (Sū.3.41) refers to those chapters as covering what is called bhūtavidyā.
- See on the medical traditions of the Atharvaveda: K.G. Zysk (1985), and the literature he refers to.
- 10) The latter group of disorders became the subject of special treatises, whereas possession in adults did not give rise to a specialized literature. The treatment of disorders caused by bālagrahas is sometimes regarded as belonging to bhūtavidyā (see V. Šukla, 1986: 87).
- It should be taken into consideration that Ca.Ci.9 has been revised by Drdhabala.
 Caraka is less rational than Suśruta in the chapters on epilepsy.
- Bhelasamhitā Ci.8.33. See on the different roles of physicians and exorcists in contemporary South Asia: D.N. Kakar (1977); P. Wirz (1941): 8-9.
- Compare the definition of kāyacikitsā in Todara's Āyurvedasaukhya (Vol. II: 1.27–28).
- Mādhavanidāna 20.
- 15) It is remarkable that the Indian medical treatises do not pay attention to simulated madness, a subject dealt with in a number of Sanskrit plays. Simulated insanity appears very early in Greek literature; Homer describes the feigned madness of Odysseus, who wants to avert becoming involved in the war against Troy.
- [16] Su.U.62,12–13.
- 17) A.h.U.6.15-16; A.s.U.9.12-14,
- 18) Mādhavanidāna 20.14-15.
- Nevertheless, the differences between the Caraka- and Bhelasanhitā are numerous.
- 20) See his comments ad Ca.Sū.1.55 and 57.
- 21) See Ca.Sū.11.46.
- Another characteristic of the Suśrutasamhitā is that it contains more mantras than
 the Carakasamhitā. Suśruta's attitude towards epilepsy is, however, more rational
 than that of Caraka.
- 23) Amṛtasāgara, p. 154.
- 24) See, e.g., A. Roşu (1978).
- 25) The only mental disorder said to be caused by injury to the head is confusion (moha; Ca.Si.9.6). Epilepsy, however, is connected with the head as the seat of the senses.
- 26) Su.U.62.12.
- S.P. Gupta (158) tends to overemphasize the differences between Caraka and Suśruta.
- 28) Su.Śā.6.27.
- 29) Bhela Ci.8; see also Ni.7.2. Another interesting statement on unmāda, also found in the Bhelasamhitā, classifies this disorder as caused by the humour wind affecting the bones and the bone marrow (Sū.11.12cd-13ab; Ci.24.49). This view of unmāda, found nowhere else, cannot easily be made to agree with the contents

of the chapters on unmada of the Bhelasamhita, which describe the usual humoral types brought about by wind, bile, phlegm and samnipāta, Moreover, most avurvedic treatises do not associate wind with the emotional life of human beings, but with bile, in particular the variety called sādhakapitta, with the heart as its seat (see Su.Sū.21.10; A.h.Sū.12.13cd-14a; A.s.Sū.20.3; Cakrapānidatta ad Ca.Sū.12.11: Bhela Śā.4.8).

- Ca.Ci.9.5. 30)
- E.g., Ca.Ni.7.4; Ca.Ci.9.5; A.s.U.9.4; Cakrapānidatta ad Ca.Sū.24.25. 31)
- See Cakrapānidatta ad Ca.Sū.1.57. The only exception I could find is insomnia. 32) sometimes caused by an excess of sativa (Ca.Sū.21.56-57).
- Ca.Sū.1.57; Vi.6.5; Śā.4.34. 33)
- Sattva, raias and tamas are located in the heart, which is the seat of the manas 34) and buddhi (Su.Śā.6.25; A.h.Śā.4.13; A.s.Śā.7.6); other seats of sattva, rajas and tamas are the vital spots, called marman (Su.Sa.6.35).
- 35) Some disorders are described as brought about by a combination of the bodily and mental dosas; mūrchā is caused by bile and tamas, bhrama (giddiness) by bile, wind and rajas, tandrā (lassitude) by wind, phlegm and tamas, nidrā (sleepiness) by phlegm and rajus (Su.Sa.4.56).
- Cakra ad Ca.Sū.1.55 and 57. 36)
- Kāśvapa Sū.27.5. 37)
- 38) Dalhana ad Su.U.66.9, Compare Su.Sū.21.28 and Ni.1.8.
- 39) Su.Sā.1.20. These connections vary and do not always agree (see R.F.G. Müller, 1935b: 91-92). It is not surprising that connections between the three humours and the five mahābhūtas are also recorded in āvurvedic literature.
- See on this subject: R.F.G. Müller (1935a): 241; (1935b). The literature on the 40) relationship between avurveda and Samkhva is extensive: see, e.g., Antonella Comba (1987).
- 41) See, e.g., Ca.Vi.6.8.
- Insanity may also occur in children (Kāśvapa Sü.25.20). 42)
- M. Weiss: 93. 43)
- 44) M. Weiss: 95.
- M. Weiss: 96-98. 45)
- M. Weiss: 95. 46) M. Weiss: 97-98.

47)

- 48) P. Wirz (1941: 16-17) expressed the same opinion. See also the descriptions of contemporary avurvedic diagnosis of humoral unmada in G. Obeyesekere (1977b). An interesting innovation of Sinhalese avurveda is the type of unmada caused by a combination of blood and bile (raktapitta); this type, reported as very common among psychiatric patients, is equated with hysteria (G. Obeyesekere, 1977b:165). Sinhalese ävurvedic practitioners distinguish many more varieties of humoral unmada (their total number amounts to twenty-two) than those described in the classical Sanskrit texts.
- 491 A codification of the emotions is absent from ayurvedic literature but elaborately dealt with in treatises on dancing, for example the Natyaśastra ascribed to Bharata.

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- 50) Insanity by frustrated love is a favourite topic of Sanskrit literature; famous examples are Kālidāsa's Vikramorvašīva and Bhavabhūti's Mālatīmādhava.
- 51) Dalhana ad Su.U.62.12: manoduhkhaja; A.h.U.6.1 and 4: ādhija.
- 52) Bhela Ci.8.13-16.
- 53) Su.U.62.5.
- 54) Vāgbhaţa employs the term mada sometimes (A.h.U.6.1) as a synonym for unmāda.
- 55) Mada also denotes intoxication by alcohol, not only in Caraka, but in all the ayurvedic treatises.
- 56) Ad Ca.Ci.9.85-86.
- 57) Ca.Ni.7.4.
- 58) I will deal with this subject later in this paper. Cakrapāṇidatta (see his remarks ad Ca.Ci.3.114cd-116) is aware of the inconsistencies, since he claims that kāma, etc., sometimes lead to excitement of wind, and on other occasions to excitement of bile.
- 59) See Ca.Vi.6.5.
- 60) Ca.Ci.9.85-86.
- 61) A.h.U.6.53cd-55ab; A.s.U.9.59-60.
- 62) Yogasūtra 2.33-34.
- 63) This term is not yet employed in the *samhitās* of Caraka and Suśruta; it is found in Vāgbhaṭa's works (A.h.U.1.43) and in the *Śārṅgadharasaṃhitā* (1.7.38). See the table on the various types of *bhūtonmāda*. Caraka (Ci.3.115–116) claims that the symptoms of the eight types of insanity caused by *bhūtas* may also occur in fevers resulting from possession.
- 64) M. Weiss agrees with me (74: 78-79).
- 65) See, however, the grahas of the Madanamaharnava and the Mahamayuri (see Table B). Compare also the grahas mentioned in chapter 230 of the Brahmavaivartapurāna (referred to in V. Sukla, 1986; 42).
- 66) See also M. Weiss: 78-79 and 84.
- 67) Su.U.60.19.
- 68) The individual experience of possession is expressed within a set of standardized cultural meanings; personal needs determine the selection of a particular deity or group of supernatural beings in each case of possession; this 'elective affinity' of cultural anthropologists is alluded to in the texts. See on this subject in general and on some case studies: G. Obeyesekere (1970), (1977a), (1980).
- 69) Su.U.60.21.
- 70) A.h.U.4.2.
- 71) Ca.Ni.7.12. The Astāngasangraha (U.7.10) has a closely related passage, absent from the Astāngahrdayasanhitā. Demons (bhūtas) are still regarded as riding their victims in present-day Bengal (Deborah P. Bhattacharyya, 62). Compare the Vetāla stories.
- 72) Ca.Ci.9.18.
- 73) Ca.Ci.9.21.
- 74) Su.U.60.17-18.
- 75) A.h.U.4.9-12; A.s.U.7.11-15.

- 76) Su.U.60.17-18; A.h.U.4.9-12; A.s.U.7.11-15. see on present-day beliefs and practices: P. Wirz (1941): 28-29.
- 77) Ca.Ni.7.10. See M. Weiss: 91. See also Ca.Ni.7.21-22.
- 78) Cakrapāṇidatta holds that *karman* is the principal cause of *bhūtonmādu* (ad Ca.Ni.7.19-20).
- 79) Ca.Ni.7.14; Ci.9.16. This need not be completely inconsistent with the emphasis on prajñāparādha, which in itself leads to the accumulation of bad karman.
- 80) See M. Weiss (1980): 90–115; K.G. Zysk (1991): 30–31. Compare Ca.Śā.1.116–117.
- 81) Ca.Ci.9.21.
- 82) A.s.U.9.11-15.
- 83) Ca.Ni.1.30.
- 84) Ca.Ci.3.115cd-116ab; Madhukośa ad Mādhavanidāna 2.30cd-31ab.
- Examples are: kalyāṇakaghṛta (Ca.Ci.9.33cd-42ab) against unmāda and bhūtonmāda; mahāpaiśācikaghṛta (Ca.Ci.9.45-48) against graha and apasmāra; laśunādyaghṛta (Ca.Ci.9.49-51) against all kinds of unmāda. See also Ca.Ci. 9.57-63ab. Some later treatises only prescibe medicines against unmāda, whatever its cause may be (e.g., Tīsaṭa's Cikitsākalikā 365-377). Other treatises have separate prescriptions for the therapy of bhūtonmāda, partly of a psychological or religious nature, partly medicinal (e.g., Cakrapāṇidatta's Cikitsāsaṃgraha). Formulas against all sorts of mental disorders are also known; an example is the caitasaghṛta of the Cakradana: unmāda 31-33. Very remarkable is the absence of religious treatment of unmāda in the Vīrasiṃhāvaloka, a text that discusses therapies based on medical, religious and astrological concepts for practically all the diseases described in the Mādhavanidāna.
- 86) Called once bhitadoșaja unmāda: Ca.Ci.9.87.
- 87) Ca.Ci.9.87-95.
- 88) Su.U.60.32cd-37ab.
- 89) A.h.U.5.24-29ab.
- 90) A.h.U.5.29cd-48.
- 91) E.g., sarsapa, called rakşoghna or rakşoghni. See P.K. Gode (1935).
- Excrements of various animals (the so-called 'Dreckapotheke') are noteworthy among these substances.
- 93) M. Weiss: 134-178.
- 94) The Sanskrit texts are silent on the incidence of particular types of bhūtonmāda in male and female patients. It is, however, obvious that possession by a Gandharva is a disorder prevalent in women, since the beings called Gandharva are attracted to them. The Kauśikasūtra, a text belonging to the Atharvaveda, describes rites to cure madness in women who are possessed by a Gandharva. See on this subject N.J. Shende (1985): 170–172, and G.U. Thite (1982): 9–10. As in many other countries, possession syndromes in general seem to be especially prevalent in India among women and members of the lower classes (see I.M. Lewis, 1978: 83–84 and 113–116).
- 95) See, e.g., S. Kakar (1982) and P. Wirz (1941).
- 96) S. Lienhard (1959: 91-92) is also convinced that the sattva and bhūtonmāda

typologies are related and influenced each other.

- 97) See table.
- 98) Bhela Ci.8.17. Su.U.62.5.
- 99) See, for example, Ca.Sū.8.4; Śā.4.34 and 36; Cakrapāņidatta ad Ca.Sū.1.55, 8.4 and 5. Vāgbhaṭa sometimes uses the term in the same sense: A.h.Śā.3.7-8ab; Arunadatta ad A.h.Śā.5.15.
- 100) Ad Ca.Śā.4.34. Dalhana calls them cittaprakrti (ad Su.Śā.4.81-88ab).
- 101) Cakrapānidatta ad Ca.Śā.4.34. See also A.s.Śā.8.18.
- 102) Vāgbhaṭa mentions the three large groups, but not their subdivisions (A.h.Śā, 3.7-8ab; A.s.Śā.5.12-14).
- 103) See table.
- 104) The four varnas form part of the classification of elephants, which makes it of a mixed type. The treatises on horses recognize, apart from the classification into sāttvika, rājasa and tāmasa, another one based on the varnas.
- 105) Sātrvika, rājasa and tāmasa types of human beings are described in the Bhagavadgītā (Chapter 17), which distinguishes them according to the type of food they prefer. In contemporary India, foods and drinks are still classified as sātrvika, rājasa and tāmasa (S. Kakar, 1982: 269).
- 106) See table.
- 107) Ca.Śā.4.34; Cakrapānidatta ad Ca.Sū.1.57.
- 108) Cakrapāņidatta ad Ca.Śā.4.36.
- 109) The Carakasamhitā itself states (Sū.8.6) that human beings are called sāttvika, etc., if sattva, etc., is the dominating element, frequently manifesting itself in their behaviour. Cakrapāṇidatta adds that human beings are sometimes influenced by sattva, on other occasions by rajas or tamas, but that their character is named after the constituent which usually governs their behaviour.
- 110) Ca.Sū.8.6; Su.Sū.35.37–38; Su.Sū.45.207–209. Vāgbhaţa uses only this broad classification (A.h.Śā.3.7–8ab; A.s.Śā.5.12–14).
- 111) Ca.Vi.8.119. Later texts mention a twofold scheme (Todara's Āyurvedasaukhya, Vol. II: 3.389–390; Candraţa's commentary ad Tīsaṭa's Cikisākalikā 16). The Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha (Śā.8.16) calls the types, elsewhere designated as sattva or kāya, prakṛti, and distinguishes seven types, classified in the same manner as the humoral prakṛtis: sāttvika, rājasa, tāmasa, three types based on mixtures of two guṇas, and one with all three guṇas.
- 112) Ad Ca.Śā.4.36.
- 113) Rasavaiśeşikasūtra 31.
- 114) A.h.Śā.5.64cd-65ab. Rasavaiśeṣikasūtra 96.
- 115) M. Weiss (1977) calls it temperament.
- 116) Ca.Vi.6.13 and 8.95–100; Su.Śā.4.62–80; Bhela Vi.4.16–26; A.h.Śā.3.85–104ab; A.s.Śā.8.6–15; Hārīta VI.1.; Candraţa's commentary ad Cikitsākalikā 16; Toḍara's Āyurvedasaukhya, Vol. II: 2.206–209; Agnipurāṇa 280.36–39 and 369.37–39; Basava's Śivatattvaratnākara VII.10.
- 117) S.P. Gupta (1977); L. Hilgenberg (1935); S. Lienhard (1959); H.C. Shukla (1973).
- 118) Ad Su.Śā.4.72-76.

- 119) Something similar is found in the *Aṣṭāṅgaḥrdayasaṃhitā* (Śā.3.89, 95, 103) but not in the *Aṣtāṅgasamgraḥa*.
- 120) Ca.Vi.8.102-114.
- 121) Su.Sū.35.16.
- 122) Similar statements are found in the *Carakasaṃhitā*; the order of merit, as mentioned in the *Suśrutasaṃhitā*, is also recognized by Caraka.
- 123) A.h.Śā.3.117–118; A.s.Śā.8.27–28.
- 124) Kāśyapa Sū.28, p. 54.
- 125) Śivatattvaratnākara VII.10.159–163.
- 126) Su.Śā.4.80.
- 127) Äyurvedasaukhya, Vol. II: 2.210.
- 128) Śivatattvaratnākara VII.10.170–173.
- 129) Ca.Sū.19.4.
- 130) *Mahāgada* occurs in the same context in the *Kāśyapasaṃhitā* (Sū.27.49), where, however, it is not described.
- 131) I.e., the suffering afflicting all the transmigratory beings. Śivadāsasena gives the same explanation, adding that the disorder is characterized by wrong knowledge (mithyājñāna).
- 132) Avinash Chandra Kaviratna, the Gulabkunverba translation, P.V. Sharma, and R.K. Sharma and Bhagwan Dash call the disorder *mahāgada*; the Gulabkunverba team rendered *mahāgada* as magnus morbus, thus giving it a pseudo-scientific status. *Atatīvābhiniveśa* is translated as inattention to what is proper (Avinash Chandra Kaviratna), mental and moral perversion (Gulabkunverba translation; R.K. Sharma and Bhagwan Dash), and adherence to unreality (P.V. Sharma). S.P. Gupta (1977: 497–505) calls the disease *atatīvābhiniveśa* and interprets it as delusion; the same interpretation is found in C. Dwarkanath (1959: 151). H.G. Singh (1977: 94 and 100–101) regards it as equivalent to paranoia.
- Caraka employs the term mahāgada on three other occasions; the term refers to diseases affecting the three main vital spots (marman), i.e., the head, heart and bladder (Ca.Ci.26.4; see Cakrapāṇidatta's comment); addiction to alcoholic beverages is a mahāgada according to some experts (Ca.Ci.24.54; Caraka himself disagrees); raktapitta is a mahāgada (Ca.Ci.4.5). The Suśrutasaṃhitā (Sū.33.4–5ab) and Hārītasaṃhitā (II.4.3) recognize a group of eight diseases which are called mahāgada: vātavyādhi, prameha, kuṣṭha, arśas, bhagandara, aśmarī, mūḍhagarbha, and udara. The same group is known as mahāmaya in Ugrāditya's Kalyāṇakāraka (11.4). Indu (ad A.s.Ci.17.11), the Rasaratnasamuccaya (21.1) and Toḍara's Āyurvedasaukhya (Vol. IV: 3.47) replace mūḍhagarbha with grahaṇī and refer to the diseases of this group as mahāroga. Suśruta calls apasmāra a mahāvyādhi (U.61.2t). Cakrapaṇidatta remarks (ad Su.Sū.32.5–6) that some regard the eight diseases beginning with vātavyādhi, together with a group consisting of śoṣa. etc. as mahāvyādhis.
- 134) Ca.Ci.10.54-63.
- 135) Ca.Sū.24.
- 136) V. Śukla (1986: 88) regards mada, mūrchā and saṃnyāsa as subjects belonging

- to bhūtavidyā, because all three are chiefly to be treated with daivavyapāśraya measures.
- 137) The term *moha* is also used as a synonym for *tamas* because it is its main characteristic. See, e.g., Ca.Śā.4.36; Ca.Ci.10.58.
- 138) Ca.Sū.24,25-27.
- 139) A.h.Ni.6.24cd-25; A.s.Ni.6.24.
- 140) Suśruta describes the pathogenesis of *mada* caused by alcohol in his chapter on the properties and actions of fluid substances; he states that *mada* occurs when the specific potency (*vīrya*) of alcoholic drinks reaches the heart and [its] vessels, and, after travelling upwards, affects the senses and consciousness (Sū.45.204cd-205); it is to be noted that these verses were not incorporated in the chapter on alcoholism (U.47). Dalhaṇa (ad Su.Sū.46.258-261) refers to *mada* brought about by poison, alcohol and blood.
- Dalhaṇa (ad Su.U.42.11) regards *mada* as a symptom produced by bile. The *Bhelasaṃhitā* considers *mada* to be a disorder caused by bile (Sū.15.25) and located in the bone marrow (Sũ.11.12cd–13ab) or the *rasa* (Sū.25.15).
- 142) Adhamalla remarks (ad Śārngadharasamhitā I.7.33) that some regard this type as arising from asrgdara (menorrhagia and metrorrhagia). The Carakasamhitā (Sū.24.11-16) regards mada in general as a disorder brought about by blood.
- 143) Ca.Sū.24.30-34.
- 144) Compare Ca.Sū.19.4; mada is of four types.
- 145) A.h.Ni.6.28cd-29; A.s.Ni.6.27cd-28.
- 146) Ca.Vi.6.5. Mada may have a wider sense in this passage, as assumed by A. Roşu (1978: 107 and 191–192).
- 147) The majority of the translators render mada as intoxication; P.V. Sharma uses the term narcosis; Avinash Chandra Kaviratna regards it as insanity.
- 148) Later treatises apply the term mada especially to alcoholic intoxication, as appears from the definition of the drug action called madakārin (Vangasena; pācanadīpanādilākṣana 21; Śārngadharasamhitā 1.4.21cd-22ab).
- 149) Ca.Ni.1.24; Su.U.39.31-32.
- 150) Su.U.39.35-38ab.
- 151) The nut of Areca catechu Linn. See Dalhana ad Su.U.39.32 and 35; Kaiyade-vanighantu, miśrakavarga 268ab.
- 152) Paspalum scrobiculatum Linn. See Su.Ci.17.37; Madhukośa ad Mādhavanidāna 2.11; Rājanighanţu 16.137.
- 153) Several species of dhattūra. See Rājanighantu: 10.11-12.
- 154) The Hārītasamhitā forms an exception; its chapter on madātyaya treats of mada caused by pūga, kodrava, dhattūra, halinī (Gloriosa superba Linn.), karavīra (Nerium indicum Mill., the Indian oleander), mohinī (of uncertain identity) and madayantikā (of uncertain identity) (III.16.13–18).
- 155) See G.J. Meulenbeld (1989).
- 156) See, e.g., Rājanighantu: 6.191.
- 157) Bhela Ci.8.12cd-16.
- 158) Su.U.62.5.
- 159) Caraka and Vāgbhaṭa call it mūrchāya when the nosological entity is meant, but

mūrchā as a symptom of other diseases. Suśruta and Hārīta consider moha to be a synonym of mūrchā, but moha often differs from mūrchā (see, e.g., Madhukośa ad Mādhavanidāna 51.3, Hemādri ad A.h.Ni.2.24).

- 160) Ca.Sū.24.35-41.
- 161) A.h.Ni.6.30cd-35; A.s.Ni.6.29-33.
- 162) Śārngadharasamhitā I.7.31cd-32a.
- 163) Su.U.46.7d-8.
- 164) Mādhavanidāna 17.13.
- 165) *Hārīta* III.14.1–6 and 13.
- 166) Bhela Ci.23.14-16.
- 167) This type of *saṃnipāta* is very rare in āyurvedic treatises.
- 168) Kalyānakāraka 17.101.
- 169) Hārīta III.14.13.
- 170) The translators usually render it as fainting.
- 171) Examples are alasaka (Bhela Ci.10.55), ojaḥkṣaya (Su.Sū.15.24), pittagulma (Bhela Ni.3.13), pittaḥrdroga (Ca.Sū.17.33), pittaḥvara (Ca.Ni.1.24), yakṣman (Bhela Ci.4.5).
- 172) Ca.Sū.24.42.
- 173) A.h.Ni.6.36; A.s.Ni.6.34.
- 174) Samnyāsa is interpreted as syncope (Gulabkunverba translation; R.K. Sharma and Bhagwan Dash), coma (P.V. Sharma), apoplexy (Avinash Chandra Kaviratna; Hilgenberg and Kirfel; J. Jolly, 1901: 120; Yādavaśarman), cataleptic state (P. Rāy, et al., 1980), and epilepsy (Bhishagratna).
- 175) Ca.Sū.24.42–53; Su.U.46.20cd–21ab; A.h.Ni.6.37–38; A.s.Ni.6.35–36.
- 176) See e.g., Jvaratriśatī 186; Bhāvaprakāśa, cikitsā 1.521.
- 177) H.G. Singh (1977): 101; P. Rãy and H.N. Gupta (1965): 100.
- 178) Ca.Sū.17.73.
- 179) Ca.Si.9.12–15.
- 180) Ca.Si.9.16-20.
- 181) Su.Ni.1.52–53ab. G.D. Singhal, L.M. Singh and K.P. Singh (1972: 23) interpret apatānaka as recurrent convulsions, and daņdāpatānaka as orthotonus.
- 182) Su.Ni.1.64-66; G.D. Singhal, L.M. Singh and K.P. Singh interpret apatantraka as convulsive fits.
- 183) A.h.Ni.15.17cd-20; A.s.Ni.15.18-22.
- 184) *Mādhavanidāna* 22.28cd–33ab.
- 185) Hārītasaṃhitā III.20.18–19.
- 186) Hārītasamhitā III.20.20.
- 187) Hārītasamhitā III.20.21–22ab.
- 188) Bower MS II.340 and 941; the term is interpreted by Hoernle as (hysteric) convulsions.
- 189) Kalyāṇakāraka 8.15.
- 190) A.h.Ni.15.21; A.s.Ni.15.23.
- 191) Bhela Ci.26. The second disease dealt with in this chapter is ardita, facial paralysis.
- 192) V. Śukla (1986: 88) regards apatantraka and apatānaka as subjects belonging

to bhūtavidyā.

- A.h.Ni.6.9-10ab; A.s.Ni.6.10-11ab: the cluster consists of unmada, mada, 193) mūrchā, apasmāra and apatānaka.
- S.P. Gupta (1977): 482-485. 194)
- 195) Arunadatta remarks (ad A.h.Ni.15.21) that apatantraka, although occurring in both sexes, afflicts chiefly women.
- J. Jolly (1901): 119. A.F.R. Hoernle (Bower MS II.316) also interpret 196) apatantraka as apoplectic convulsions.
- 197) Su.Ni.1.85.
- Indian medicine does not pay much attention to delirious states, in contrast with 198) Greek medicine, which includes them in the disease called phrenitis.
- Āvurvedavijāāna II, Chapter 51. 199)
- Bhaisajvaratnāvali, Chapter 77. 200)
- See Rasavogasāgara, cakārādi 71. 201)
- 202) Äyurvedavijñāna II, Chapter 52.
- 203) Bhaisajyaratnāvalī, Chapter 78.
- 204) Āvurvedavijāāna II, Chapter 56. 205) Bhaisajvaratnāvalī, Chapter 79.
- Āvurvedavijāāna II, Chapter 57. 206)
- 207) Bhaisajvaratnāvalī, Chapter 80.
- 208) Avurvedavijñāna II, Chapter 59.
- 209) Bhaisaiyaratnāvalī, Chapter 81.
- 210) Bhaisajvaratnāvalī, Chapter 103.
- 211) Āyurvedavijāāna II, Chapter 54. The Ayurvedavijāāna calls it vosāpasmāra, and the Bhaisajvaratnāvali vosāpasmāra and vosāpatantraka; the latter treatise distinguishes a number of varieties.
- 212) Siddhapravogalatikā 17.63; 33.83.
- 213) Tremor of the head (śiraḥkampa) is already described as one of the diseases of the head by Vagbhata (A.h.U.23.15cd; A.s.U.27.15cd).
- Bhaisajvaratnāvalī, Chapter 99. 214)
- 215) Ayurvedavijñāna II, Chapter 77.
- 216) Bhaisajvaramāvalī, Chapter 100.
- Āvurvedavijñāna II. Chapter 77. 217)
- See his Siddhaprayogalatikā 28.10. 218)
- 219) See his Siddhabhaisajvamañjusa, jvara 93.
- 220) Su.Śā.10.42.
- 221) Bhaisajyaratnāvalī, Chapter 98.
- 222) Āvurvedavijñāna II, Chapter 76.
- 223) See on the history of suicide in India: U. Thakur (1963).
- Bhaisajyaratnāvalī, Chapter 106. 224)
- 225) Āvurvedavijāāna II, Chapter 83.
- 226) Su.Sā.4.34-35.
- Su.Śā.4.32 and 35. 227)
- 228) Su.Sā.4.38.
- 229) Su.Sā.4.48ab.

- 230) Ca.Su.21.55-57.
- 231) Su.Śā.4.42.
- 232) Ca.Ci.24.3-25.
- 233) Su.U.47.7-8.
- 234) A.h.Ni.6; A.s.Ni.6.
- 235) A.h.Ci.7.54-99; A.s.Ci.9.68-113.
- 236) Bhela Ci.28.2-3 and 13cd-25.
- 237) Hārīta III.16.3.
- 238) Kāśyapa, pānātyayacikitsita, p. 136.
- 239) See Bower Manuscript 1.25–26. See on the Indian attitude in general towards alcoholic drinks, the varieties known, and their preparation: P. Aalto (1959).
- 240) Ca.Ci.24.29-36.
- 241) A.h.Ni.6.1-3; A.s.Ni.6.2-4.
- 242) Su.U.47.3-6.
- 243) Three stages of alcoholic intoxication are already referred to in the Atharvaveda (6.30.2).
- 244) Ca.Ci.24.37-38 and 41-51.
- 245) Su.U.47.11–12. See also Su.Sū.45.204cd–205, where the pathogenesis of mada is described.
- 246) A.h.Ni.6.4-8; A.s.Ni.6.5-8.
- 247) The differences are discussed in the Madhukośa ad Mādhavanidāna 18.10-11.
- 248) Mādhavanidāna 18.7-11.
- 249) Bhela Ci.28.
- 250) Hārīta III.16.
- Kāśyapa, pānātyayacikitsita, 19–22. Kāśyapa even refers to madātyaya in children (Sū.25.36).
- 252) Suśruta also refers to types which exhibit chiefly the signs of two humours (Su.U.47.29).
- 253) Ca.Ci.24.199-205.
- 254) A.h.Ni.6.20d-23ab; A.s.Ni.6.20b-22.
- 255) These disorders are not interpreted in any translation.
- 256) Cakrapāṇidatta (ad Ca.Ci.24.199-205) and Vijayarakṣita (ad Mādhavanidāna 18.22cd) remark that Suśruta did know about them, without mentioning their names (he is said to refer to them in Su.U.47.49).
- 257) Su.U.47.19cd-22ab.
- 258) Mādhavanidāna 18.19-21ab.
- 259) G.D. Singhal c.s. interpret them as hangover, alcoholic gastritis and chronic alcoholism.
- 260) Su.U.47.50 and 54.
- 261) Bhela Ci.28.6-9ab.
- 262) Bhela Ci.28.91cd-92. Compare Kāśyapasaṃhitā, pānātyayacikitsita. 51.
- 263) Kāśyapa, pānātyayacikitsita, 3-5.
- 264) Some translators (e.g., Hilgenberg and Kirfel) render madātyaya/pānātyaya as delirium tremens, which cannot be justified.
- 265) Epilepsy and insanity are regarded as closely related diseases (see, for example,

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Śivadāsasena ad Cakradatta, unmāda 1).

- Ca.Ni.8.4. 266)
- Su.U.61.8. 267)
- 265) A.h.U.7.1-2: A.s.U.10.2-3.
- 269) Bhela Ni.8.3 and 8.
- 270) Bhela Ci.9.2-4.
- Hārīta III.18.1-5. Udāna and prāņa are varieties of wind (vāta). 271)
- The head is considered the seat of the vital breaths (prāṇāh; Ca.Sū.17.12). 272)
- Cakrapanidatta asserts (ad Ca.Ci.9.87-95) that the heart is the organ affected by 273) the humours in both epilepsy and insanity.
- Ca.Sū.19.4; Ni.8.3; Su.U.61.10cd-11ab; A.h.U.7.5cd; A.s.U.10.6cd; Bhela Ni. 274)8.1; Kāśyapa Sū.27.52.
- 275) Kalyāṇakāraka 17.112. The Bhelasaṃhitā refers to apasmāra once as a disease of wind, located in bones and bone marrow (Bhela Ci.24.48cd-50ab). Tibetan medicine, although largely derived from the Indian system, classifies epilepsy (khyab-hjug-gi-nad) in a completely different way; seventeen varieties are distinguished: five varieties connected with one of the five great elements, and ten connected with a combination of two elements; Tibetan varieties of epilepsy total seventeen because the wind-fire variety is divided into three subvarieties (see Lobsang Dolma Khangkar, 1979). See on another classification of the types of epilepsy in Tibetan medicine: R.E. Emmerick (1987) and Terry Clifford (1984).
- 276) Loss of control of urine and biting of the tongue are absent from the descriptions by Caraka, Suśruta, and Vāgbhaṭa, but the initial cry and the froth forming on the lips are mentioned.
- M. Weiss (1977): 155. 277)
- 278) Ca.Ni.8.9.
- 279) Ca.Ci.10.53.
- 280) M. Weiss says that Ca.Ci.9 (on unmāda) was not redacted by Drāhabala, whereas Ci.10 (on epilepsy) was, according to the colophons of these chapters. I do not understand this remark, since the colophons of the most current edition state that both chapters were redacted by Drdhabala.
- Su.U.60.13 and 15. These references are unconvincing, since epileptic fits are 281) not unequivocally described.
- Ca.Ni.8.9. 282)
- This agrees with the recognition of only four types of epilepsy. 283)
- Ca.Ci.10.53. Cakrapāṇidatta makes similar remarks ad Ca.Ni.8.9. 284)
- 285) Ca.Ci.10.53.
- 286) Ca.Ni.8.14.
- Ca.Ni.8.11. 287)
- Ad Ca.Ci.10.53. 288)
- Su.U.61.18cd-21. The Suśrutasamhitā describes nevertheless a disorder in chil-289) dren, resembling epilepsy, that is caused by a demon called Skandapasmāra (Su.U.27.9).
- 290) Su.U.61.23.

- 291) Su.U.61.26ab.
- 292) A.h.U.7.
- 293) A.s.U.10.59.
- 294) A.s.U.10.64.
- 295) Bhela Ni.8 and Ci.9.
- 296) Kāśyapa Sū.27.52.
- 297) Kalyāṇakāraka 17.112-114.
- 298) Rājanighantu, varga 20.
- 299) See on dreams: W. Bollée (1984; with bibliography); S. Layek (1990); S.P. Gupta (1977): 417–421.
- 300) Ca.I.5.43.
- 301) Kāśyapa, ausadhabhesajendriyādhyāya 23cd-24.
- 302) Kāśyapa, ausadhabhesajendriyādhyāya 25–26.
- 303) A.h.Śā.6.61; A.s.Śā.12.12. See Aruṇadatta's commentary on the various types of dreams.
- 304) See on dreams: S. Layek (1990); S.Ch. Mitra (1932); R.F.G. Müller (1951/53).
- 305) A well-known treatise on this subject is Jagaddeva's *Svapnacintāmaņi*; some *Purānas* contain a chapter on dreams and their meaning.
- 306) Su.Śā.2.38-42.
- 307) The *āsekya* is also known in non-medical literature; he is mentioned in the *Nāradasmrti* (see J. Jolly, 1893: 459).
- 308) The *īrṣyāśaṇḍha* of the Bower Manuscript (II.350 and 360; regarded, in Hoernle's translation, as a man who is impotent from jealousy) is probably the same as the *īrṣyaka*. The *īrṣyaka* is also known in non-medical literature, he is mentioned in the *Nāradasmṛti* (see J. Jolly, 1893: 459).
- 309) See also Su.Śā.2.43–44 and 47.
- 310) See Ca.Śā.2.18-20, together with Cakrapānidatta's comments.
- 311) Hastyāyurveda, kṣudrarogasthāna 13.
- 312) Hastyāyurveda, kṣudrarogasthāna 15.
- 313) Hastyäyurveda, ksudrarogasthäna 18.
- 314) Hastyāyurveda, ksudrarogasthāna 21.
- 315) Hastyāyurveda, kṣudrarogasthāna 32.
- 316) *Hastyāyurveda, kṣudrarogasthāna* 32. A series of ten *grahas*, partly identical, is enumerated elsewhere in the same treatise (*mahārogasthāna* 7.50–52ab).
- 317) Hastyāyurveda, kṣudrarogasthāna 33.
- 318) Hastyāyurveda, kṣudrarogasthāna 34.
- 319) Hastyāyurveda, ksudrarogasthāna 47.
- 320) Hastyāyurveda, ksudrarogasthāna 51.
- 321) Hastyāyurveda, uttarasthāna 32.
- 322) Chapter 56.
- 323) Chapter 57.
- 324) Chapter 62.
- 325) See on the Tibetan classification: T. Clifford (1984).

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